

The Social Studies

VOLUME XLI, NUMBER 8

Continuing The Historical Outlook

DECEMBER, 1950

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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.
Subscription \$2.50 a year, single numbers 35 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLI, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1950

The Geopolitics of Iceland

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

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Iceland—the fourth largest island of the North Atlantic—has always been a geographical stepping stone between the Old World and the New, but with the perfection of airway communication that location has assumed a fresh strategic importance.

Iceland, Ultima Thule to the ancient Greeks and to many romantic travelers and scholars since, just touches the Arctic Circle and lies northwest of the British Isles. Only yesterday it was remote, well off the normal sailing routes. Today it lies on the great circle air route, the short line between northern Europe and North America, and its handsome goods and passenger airport which replaces the military base of war time, welcomes several planes a day. It is a very small country, indeed, with a population of 150,000, one-third of whom live in the capital city of Reykjavik, a misty city heated by steam from the island's volcanic hot springs. Its language has endured for a thousand years sufficiently unchanged so that the oldest sagas are not yet remote from common speech. It had its first parliament in the year 912.

Americans are inclined to overestimate bigness as a desirable quality. Iceland should give

them pause and perhaps influence them to cultivate local gardens and regions rather than stand pat on size and uniformity. Iceland, no bigger than the single State of Kentucky, with on the whole a poor soil, has yet a rich and honest life, fine traditions of home making, good cooking, well bred folk. There is a passion for education for young and old that is a stream of refreshment to the body politic. The book stores burgeon. Everybody reads, and the whole country prizes its painters, welcomes modern painting and traditional art as well. Centuries of earthquake and volcanos, isolation and the hard life of a fisher folk toiling in stormy waters have made for a people hardy and aware of a social common denominator, and determined to protect the individual from undemocratic pressures.

GEOGRAPHY

Greenland and Iceland are an extension of Canada. The Labrador Current chills Greenland's east coast but civilization exists on the west coast. Iceland is warmed by the Gulf Stream. A map shows how easy it is for big
(Continued on page 340)

DR. LEONARD B. IRWIN BECOMES EDITOR

With the November, 1950 issue of THE SOCIAL STUDIES, Dr. Arthur C. Bining resigned as editor. He has most ably filled this office since 1937 and helped develop and expand the magazine to its present position of usefulness to teachers in the field. He has guided the editorial policy and developed many of the valuable departments now included in its pages. His untiring efforts and insistence on accuracy of every detail, has established THE SOCIAL STUDIES as an authority in the field. Dr. Bining will continue as a member of the Editorial Board and in this position will advise and aid in the editing of the magazine.

Dr. Leonard B. Irwin, Principal of the Haddon Heights High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey, has become editor of THE SOCIAL STUDIES with this issue. Dr. Irwin has been associated with the magazine for a number of years and since 1945 has held the position of assistant editor and editor of the "News and Comment" department.

A. E. MCKINLEY, JR., *Managing Editor*

bombing planes to hop from Norway to Iceland to Greenland to Canada. The Island is a volcano-lighted beacon in the North Atlantic, marking the Arctic; it is 2,400 miles from Boston, 490 miles from the British Isles, 600 miles from Norway. At Iceland's west coast bases they are only 175 miles from the nearest part of gigantic Greenland.

Iceland is about 39,709 sq. miles, a fifth larger than Ireland, a fifth smaller than Pennsylvania, but Ireland has a population of more than 4,000,000, and Pennsylvania nearly 10,000,000, while Iceland's population is only 132,750 (1947). Three-fifths of its area is uninhabited, and of the remaining two-fifths, only 108,840 acres are cultivated (manured home-fields, vegetable gardens and irrigated meadows); of the rest, 494,200 acres are forest land, mostly brushwood, which has until quite recently been used as winter pasture for sheep, and some 8,648,500 acres are grazing grounds, a considerable part of which is unfit for cultivation.¹ This prescribed area is further limited by its northerly geographical position and by a climate of particular variability. Nevertheless, since earliest days husbandry has been the chief occupation of the people. Comparing these meager natural advantages with those of the United States, we find that, while the latter is confronted by a problem of dispossessed and subsidized farmers, in Iceland there is practically no destitution; that in spite of the difficulties of the terrain and widely scattered farms, there is no illiteracy, and that the country is already nearing the lowest death rate in the world. Iceland's climate is neither arctic nor subarctic, despite its location virtually on the Arctic Circle. The Gulf Stream keeps the weather far more temperate than that, for instance, of Minnesota or the Dakotas. But Iceland lacks natural resources. There are fish in the waters surrounding the island—and that is about all. Two-thirds of the land is sand, bare mountains and weird lava-fields, supports no vegetation, and is considered uninhabitable; on the other third, comprising the coastal valleys, farmers can raise little more than hay and potatoes, while the tough hummocks that spring up and constantly redevelop after being cut down make large scale cultivation by machinery all but impossible. There is no grain; there are no forests; no deposits of limestone or

clay from which to make cement, bricks or other building materials; no deposits of iron, copper or other industrial minerals, no coal (except some low grade peat that has little value as fuel), no oil.

For a great many years Iceland's economy was almost exclusively founded on the sale of codfish to Spain. It should be remembered that Iceland must stand or fall by her foreign trade, which is per capita one of the largest in the world. Having no coal, timber, or minerals and unable to grow grains, the Icelanders export fish and fish products to obtain almost everything needed to sustain their high standards of living.

The biggest harvest is reaped from the sea. Iceland catches more fish per capita than any European nation. Fishermen haul in cod south of the island in the spring, herring in northern waters in the summer. Iceland pioneered with the trick of steaming cod livers fresh on board ship to save vitamins.

Many fishermen are between-time farmers. Literally making hay while the midnight sun shines, they harvest grass from irrigated fields for the winter feed of 600,000 sheep. Besides hay, in the short summers farmers can raise little more than potatoes, rutabagas, and turnips. About one-half of 1 per cent of the island's area is under cultivation—the green fringe of lowlands around the pasture lands, glaciers, and lava deserts of the central plateau.

Obviously, Iceland is poorly endowed by nature. But due to her relatively short distance from the coast and the warmth of the Gulf Stream she claims waterfalls greater than any in Europe, measured in the horsepower which they might generate. This power has made it possible for cities to develop municipal electric plants with current so cheap that it is used for cooking as well as for light. Another great natural resource is volcanic heat. In the 13th century Snorri Sturluson led the water from a spring to a bathing pool, which still exists. Today farmers pipe the hot water to their dwellings, to hothouses where they cultivate vegetables and flowers in every season, and to gardens, where irrigation by warm water speeds the growth of vegetables. These hot springs and geysers have another value: they attract tourists. All Iceland's towns stand beside fjords and bays. Yanks on leave gravitate

toward Reykjavik, the capital and only city, where a third of the people live (51,000). It was the first permanent settlement of rebel Vikings from Norway who colonized Iceland in the 870's.

The Icelanders speak one language without dialects. Population numbers have remained unaffected for nearly ten centuries.

HISTORY

Until 700 years ago, Iceland and Greenland were probably the most civilized spots in North European civilization. Greenland exported to Europe falcons and polar bears, prime gifts for princes. Iceland wrote into its sagas, notably the great prose and poetry Eddas, the history of Europe of its time, as far distant as Constantinople. The greatest historian of the Middle Ages was an Icelanders, Snorri Sturluson. Columbus sailed first to Iceland.

World War II's first "new" nation is one of the world's oldest democracies. Discovered by Irish explorers in 795 A.D. (according to *De Mensura Orbis Terrae*, written in 825 A.D. by Ducuil, an Irish monk), Iceland was an independent commonwealth until 1264. Then it became a Norwegian protectorate, and finally (in 1387) a Danish colony. Its Althing (Parliament: literally, The Thing) was 1,014 years old when Iceland's independence was declared.

The first men to settle in Iceland were probably Irish priests in the 8th century, followed by Norse Vikings. Because these fighting men in their flatbottomed long ships were far too proud to obey a king, they made Iceland a Republic, the first in the Western Hemisphere. The United States took notice of this mother of republics in 1930, the thousandth anniversary of the first Icelandic Parliament, by giving Iceland the statue of Leif Ericson, who discovered America in the year 1000. Leif had been taken to Greenland by his father, Eric the Red, who had been banished from Iceland for manslaughter. Leif sailed perhaps as far south as Cape Cod. A colony of Greenlanders settled briefly on the American shore, then went home.

The same search for freedom that later brought colonists to North America prompted Norwegians to flee royal oppression and settle on Iceland's west coast in 874 A.D. Today's inhabitants are descended from those Vikings and from Irish, Danish, Scottish, and English

settlers. In 930 they set up their pioneer republic and its parliament, the Althing. In 1000, while an Icelanders, Leif Ericson, was discovering America, the Althing adopted Christianity. After three centuries of freedom Iceland fell under foreign rule; first, Norway, in 1262, then Denmark, in 1380. Emigration to America followed the nation's darkest hour in 1783, when unprecedented volcanic damage capped a long era of plagues, famines, and raids by sea rovers. Partial freedom was won under Jon Sigurdsson, a patriotic leader, and the King of Denmark gave Iceland a constitution of its own on the 1,000th anniversary of settlement, in 1874. Later, the Icelandic-Danish Act of Union in December, 1918, made Iceland a free and independent Kingdom, united to Denmark only by a personal tie—the King of Denmark being also King of Iceland. April 10, 1940, Germany invaded Denmark; Iceland's Althing transferred royal power to the Icelandic Cabinet. In May, 1941, a resolution of the Althing proclaimed Iceland's intention not to renew the 1918 Act of Union. A second resolution stated the plan to become a republic. These decisions were supported in the 4-day plebiscite of May 20-23, 1944. Almost 97 per cent voted for a Republic. On June 17, 1944, Sveinn Bjoernsson, Regent of the Icelandic Government, was elected the First President.

ICELAND'S IMPORTANCE IN AN AIR AGE

The modern air age has spelled the end of the safety once provided by the country's geographical remoteness, that once guaranteed its peace and security. Until recently enjoying the benefits of geographic isolation, today Iceland is one of the key points in world communications and strategically one of the most important countries on this globe. It is 190 miles east of southern Greenland, 600 miles west of Norway, 500 miles north-west of Scotland, and 260 miles north-west of the Faroe Islands.

The strategic changes culminated in 1940, when, in May, British forces "invaded" Iceland; in July, 1941, the first contingents of Americans arrived. The Americans came at the invitation of the Icelandic Government through the tripartite agreement among Great Britain, Iceland, and the United States. By this agreement Iceland requested the United States to send armed forces to protect her, thus re-

leasing Britain's force so urgently needed in other theatres of war. Without this occupation, on the other hand, the fury of war might have rolled across the Shetlands, the Orkneys, the Faroes, and Greenland. By occupation, the Allies started to dominate the sea and air approaches across the North Sea and into Northern Europe, assumed the control of the sea and air approaches of the North Atlantic, to Great Britain, France, and the Iberian Peninsula. "Iceland is truly a half-way house, a stepping stone between the New World and the Old."²

CONSEQUENCES OF "OCCUPATION"

The general impact of World War II, combined with the occupation, has had a tremendous effect on Iceland in numberless ways. Immediately before the war Iceland was in virtually a desperate economic situation, with a good deal of unemployment, a low standard of living, large foreign debt, serious housing shortage, and a low foreign trade. Her export was nearly all her national income: selling of fish and fish products. But Spain and Italy, her main customers, were confronted with the Spanish Civil War and Mussolini's foreign adventures—and Iceland came close to complete ruin. At the same time, Iceland has the highest imports per capita in the world and is entirely dependent on the imports of both raw materials and manufactured goods. The invasion brought a flood of money, and inflation shook the island's economy to its foundation. But during the war Iceland was able to accumulate foreign credits far exceeding anything she had known in her whole history. Although the credits were exhausted by 1947, she had one of the finest fishing fleets in the world, new British-built trawlers, sixty new smaller fishing vessels, and more permanent houses per capita than any other country in the world. Roads have been extended and improved all over the country; harbors have been modernized, and much work done on herring factories and new factories for freezing and canning.

KEFLAVIK BASE

The United States air base at Keflavik, Iceland, which American civilian personnel uses, forms an important station on the great circle routes between eastern United States and far-northern Europe. Not far from the Arctic Circle, 320 miles off the southeast coast of Greenland, Keflavik lies about halfway between

New York City and Moscow (Moskva). It is 2,600 miles from the chief United States port and 2,150 miles from the Soviet capital. The native settlement of Keflavik long has been a fishing village. Situated on the southwest peninsula of the island, about 20 miles across the bay from the capital, Reykjavik, before World War II it was but a hamlet with a few wooden houses and huts and an unsafe harbor. In addition to its own fishing fleet, its port became the resort of boats from various parts of Iceland during the codfishing season, which is at its height from the first of the year through April. In recent years, most of the houses there have been built of concrete instead of wood. The area east and north of the base is noted for its geographic and climatic contrasts.

GEOPOLITICAL FUTURE

On their craggy, flounder-shaped island, the Icelanders have never had any army or navy. But in the modern world, where oceans are narrow and no place is really remote, Iceland's chief claim to distinction is geographic. Squatting squarely astride the hemisphere dividing line (the 20th degree of west longitude), it is an important base for protection of Europe-bound convoys, and an important aerial way-station between North America and Europe. Icelanders know that they must lean on a strong, good-neighborly power. The British Isles are only 500 miles away. But the United States, whose troopships steamed 2,300 miles to Reykjavik's cobblestoned levees in 1941, is closer in other ways. Naturally Iceland does not like the presence of strangers; but the United States has demonstrated neighborliness by trying to keep things on a guest-and-host basis. The United States underwrote British obligations to Iceland, in 1944, to the tune of \$20,000,000 annually. United States pays good U. S. dollars for Iceland's fish and fish products. The Icelandic Republic is also leaning westward today, since the U. S. airport on its territory gives her a guarantee that the United States must keep it a going concern under all conditions—for its own protection and for the protection of United States-European communications.

While American troops were stationed in Iceland during World War II, bases on the island were valuable as steppingstones on the air ferry and transport route to Great Britain.

They also were used for radar and weather forecasting equipment. Today, Iceland is even more important in the geopolitical picture dominated by the hostility of the U.S.S.R. to the non-Communist world. Geographically, Iceland is almost equally far from Moscow and Washington; it is but five flying hours distant from the Lowlands of Scotland. It stands squarely astride the Polar air routes.

¹Vilhjalmur Stefansson, *Iceland: The First American Republic* (New York: Doubleday, Doran, 1939).

²J. W., "Iceland, Its Importance in an Air Age." *The World Today*, IV, 7 (July, 1948), pp. 297-307.

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Predicting Adult Opinion From Child Opinion

ELIZABETH PILANT

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Ordinarily when we who concern ourselves with the education of children write, it is to tell of a better way of teaching the young generation something. But we should not neglect the much more important question of what the children can teach us adults. And they can teach us plenty—if we will but learn.

Certain personal experiences of my own lead me to think that in the observation of children's audible and total physical reactions to controversial situations we may be able to learn much more than merely their personal reactions. We may even be able to learn how their parents think on the same moot points and get a pretty good indication of what the general public opinion is or soon will be.

What reasons do I have for making such unsupported assertions? In the first place, perhaps, the fundamental objection to the whole public opinion polling technique has been the wide-

spread doubt as to whether one can get adults to tell what they really believe, and, particularly, whether a comparatively untrained poll canvasser in contact with strangers for a few brief moments can obtain an accurate and adequate opinion profile. It is taken for granted that part of the process of becoming an adult is to become more careful about betraying one's true opinions and emotions, especially on points in bitter controversy. Obviously, one's livelihood may be at stake, the safety of one's family or friends may be involved, one's chances of advancement may be affected by any outright expression of views in such cases.

In addition, the child in growing up not only undergoes an intellectual sophistication but an emotional stabilization that tends to prevent his exhibition of total physical reactions to a situation, as we say, to speak with his whole body and features. Such childhood reactions are

free of adult restraint and mental reservations that make it so difficult to determine with any degree of exactitude just what a highly educated person of maturity does think even when he is scrupulously and conscientiously honest in his statements, devoid of all desire to mislead by positive misstatement, emotional shading, under-emphasis, or over-emphasis. That is, as we grow more mature, we become more conscious of the different viewpoints from which a situation may conceivably be viewed. With intellectual maturity, it should become increasingly difficult to state clear and sweeping credos without qualification.

Not only are there the above reasons for believing that *a priori* child opinion may be easier to observe and report, but there is also the question of whether the child has reached a point in mental development and experiential background where he can give reasoned opinions of his own making. One of the most frequently cited reasons for not teaching controversial issues in the lower grades is that the children are not yet able to make up their own minds and to weigh the evidence. If that is true, then, inasmuch as they do indubitably express opinions, they must be repeating the opinions or reactions of adults or adolescents with whom they come in contact—in the home, at school, on the street. Regardless of whether this opinion is a reflection of family, or school, or general public, the very fact that it is a reflection of the opinions of older persons is the fundamental point.

But that does not mean the child's opinions are to be determined as would an adult's—by systematic questioning. Rather, it may be much easier to measure in the group activity when not keenly conscious of adults being present. At least, that is my feeling as the result of certain experiences which I now describe.

During the years between the outbreak of the Second World War in Europe and our entrance into the conflict, real doubt existed in the minds of us and our leaders as to whether we were anti-Nazi enough to fight, anti-Nazi in bitter earnest. One remembers the welter of books, magazine articles, editorials, letters and demonstrations that kept us confused. But during that period, when in doubt, I made it a practice to go to children's Saturday matinees to watch their reactions to the newsreels. When

the news pictures were flashed on showing speakers or group activities of the Nazi, the child audience was uninhibited in its vigorous disapproval. When allied personages and armed forces were portrayed, the child audience was equally unrestrained in its enthusiasm. And that occurred in a midwestern city with a very large German population and a sizeable Italian segment. To check on my impressions, later in the same day, I would go to another showing of the news reels before a dominantly adult audience and note the apparent indifference with which the pictures were viewed.

Another point that remains to be considered is the possible predictive value of observations of child opinion in determining what adult reaction will be in the near future. Any assumption of predictive value of that kind would rest on the observation that adults may well exhibit within the privacy of their own homes and the sanctity of small family discussion groups a greater degree of frankness and outspokenness than before the general public. Such a belief is certainly not repugnant to common sense. That is, the child has a chance to see the adults of his own family react more frankly and totally in inflection, gesture and words than adult poll canvassers in public.

From the first assumption, it may easily follow that what adults within the home and home groups may be willing to express vehemently in private they may in a longer course of time be willing to state publicly. That is, one may assume that adults speak their opinions and reflect their feelings on moot points more strongly in privacy than they are yet prepared to do in public. But, as the result of practice in making their opinions known on a point in private, they may gain sufficient fortitude or conviction in the course of additional time to state their position emphatically and publicly.

That was at least borne out in my own observations described above. What I saw children emphatically show at the movies, presumably reflecting more privately expressed reaction of their elders, I saw the elders assert publicly but at a later date.

That is, I saw the children showing strong anti-Nazi reactions to newsreels while their elders viewed them with apparent apathy. But as soon as we entered the war, the elders were showing the same strong anti-Nazi sentiment—

and in public. The transition was made so quickly and smoothly as to suggest that no change of sentiment had taken place but that now the only difference was that public expression was made. It had now become politic to express overtly what had been expressed privately hitherto. Of course these were factors beyond the comprehension and course of action of the unpremeditating child.

In fact, in adult opinion the period just before our entry into the war seemed to witness an unprecedented vehemence of anti-war or anti-allied sentiment. It was almost as if the minority, realizing its numerical inadequacy, was trying to overwhelm or obscure sentiment by its own outspokenness. Such an effect is also possible in a democracy where majority opinion is willing to tolerate dissent from what is known to be the decided viewpoint of the nation.

But to return the main point, although individual child opinion can be determined, it is my feeling that the observation of group reaction under conditions when the children are least conscious of adult presence will be the most fruitful. Probably, it would be difficult to create a set-up in which each individual child

felt less restrained in his reactions than at a children's matinee. The degree of darkness, the focus of all attention on one point and scene, the relative absence of adult inhibition, and the feeling of individual privacy induced by the twilight and the anonymity of the mass . . . all these add up to an impressive sum of advantageous circumstances.

The reactions under such circumstances can be measured by decibel recordings of the volume of applause or disapproval; by photography of total physical reaction in the dark; by skilled observers of mass reactions; by the cumulative totals obtained by wiring seats to register hand grip strengths. The last method is the most difficult, but might be considered significant.

But, for our purposes, the important thing is to encourage the study of possible relationships between child opinion and adult opinion regardless of the mode of measurement or the situation set-up to be measured. Your experiences in this field may be directly contrary to mine; your experimental results may vary directly with outcomes I suggest. If so, let us hear from you and all others who may see in this area a fertile field for study.

Is the American School System Democratic?

ETHEL S. BEER
New York City

In the United States the avowed aim is to provide education for all children. This is in keeping with democratic principles. The article on Education in the *Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences* says: "A second manifestation of democracy which has influenced the school is the ideal of equal opportunity." Each American boy and girl is entitled to learn according to ability. To quote from the statement of the National Education Association, reported by *School and Society*, January 25, 1947: "An adequate educational opportunity for every child is imperative for the nation's welfare." However the reality still is far from the goal.

The overall picture of education in this country shows great divergence. Dr. Benjamin Fine makes this evident in his twelve articles, "The Crisis in American Education," published by the *New York Times* in February, 1947. Dealing primarily with the teacher shortage in the public school, he points out the danger to democracy from unfair distribution of educational advantages. If so, how about the private school? Does it not accentuate the problem? It seems obvious that splitting education in this way can only add to the uneven development. Besides, would there not be more interest from the parents—which as Dr. Fine stresses is so

important for the improvement of the nation's schools—if all children went to public school?

Today the American school system is divided. Side by side run public and private schools, offering free and paid tuition. According to the *Biennial Survey* of the United States Offices of Education for 1940-1942, "the total number of pupils enrolled in the private elementary and secondary schools for the United States is estimated roughly at 3,000,000 pupils for 1940-1941" or "more than 10 per cent of the grand total of children enrolled by all schools both privately and publicly supported." Thus there is a comparatively large proportion of children, whose families contribute financially to their education. To be sure this includes the group attending religious schools, some such as the parish parochial schools, which charge only a nominal fee. On the whole this article does not deal with these latter, but is mainly concerned with the private elementary and secondary schools of the proprietary type of independent religious order. Also, there will be no discussion of the religious issue.

Briefly, a few distinctions between the public and the private schools are as follows. The private school is supposed to have a richer cultural program, although both kinds of schools vary in this respect. The public school has larger classes. "Along with other features in the private educational program which the publicly supported school cannot hope to duplicate is the low pupil-teacher ratio," states the *Biennial Survey*, mentioned above. So public school children receive less individual attention despite the fact that their need is greater.

Public schools are districted for the most part, particularly the primary schools. Hence the children with few exceptions attend the school nearest their home, no matter what are the qualifications. In contrast, the private school has no residential restrictions, which gives the parents a choice. Generally speaking, continuous attendance in the same school is more likely in private than public schools. The public school usually is divided into elementary, junior high and senior high school, which means that the child has to change once or twice before graduation. On the contrary private schools keep children from pre-school years until ready for college, although this does not apply to all.

Of course, there are no economic or social barriers to public schools as there are for the private. In the latter, ability to pay usually is essential. Consequently there are more private schools in regions of wealth. For example. Of the 9,730 private elementary schools reported in the *Biennial Survey* for the whole United States in 1940-1941, New York State leads with 1,067 and Pennsylvania comes next with 882. In regard to the 2,997 private secondary schools reporting, New York accounted for 326 and Pennsylvania 220, while no other state had as many as 200. Taking the words of the *Biennial Survey*: "The private secondary schools are located in greatest number in those states with the greatest industrialization—States which report the largest number of persons paying Federal income taxes and average the highest payments per person." It is true that a few children receive scholarships to private schools as a sop to democratic principles. But even this "implies a measure of selected absorption by human decision," as Mr. Justice Botein of the Supreme Court of the State of New York so aptly puts it in his "Opinion" in connection with the closing of the Horace Mann-Lincoln private school. No matter how it is regarded, the private school encourages privilege because it accepts only a special group, which the public school cannot do.

Frequently, private schools are defended on two scores. They are needed to pioneer in education. Besides many of these schools are personal business ventures and as such deserve consideration.

In regard to pioneering, possibly this view was accepted without question in the past. But today there is some doubt about it. The plan of Teachers College, Columbia University, to close the Horace Mann-Lincoln School and to divert its efforts to the larger field of public education bears out this contention. To illustrate, the following is taken from the "Opinion" of Mr. Justice Botein, referred to above:

It is not contended that the student population of any one school, public or private, represents more than a cross-section of the community served by that school. But the public school . . . is related to a much broader community base than the private school, because it represents a better cross-section of society economically and socially. The

best medium for experimentation is presented as a group of public schools varying in type . . . ; in rural areas, small communities, large urban communities, industrial cities and the like . . . In the aggregate, these public schools represent a true cross-section of the student population of the country, while the laboratory private school because of selected students, does not contain even a cross-section of its community."

As for the private schools being personal business enterprises, little need be said. There are no legal restrictions to prevent their existence. Nor perhaps would these be desirable. Referring once more to the article on Education in the *Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences*, it is said: "Although American opinion in general looks with disfavor on private schools, they are not prohibited. . . . The attempt of one state, Oregon, to prohibit by law the establishment of private schools for elementary education was declared unconstitutional in 1925." Since American opinion in general is against private schools, perhaps they will disappear in the end. Certainly a change would occur automatically if parents who send their children to private schools saw the matter in a different light than they do now. Once convinced that their children cannot escape suffering if education continues to play favorites, because this is a threat to democracy, these parents will act.

At present, the children are divided into two groups, one attending public, the other private schools. Wealth contributes to this separation to a great extent since the private school is costly. As the *Biennial Survey* says: "The maintenance of small classes is expensive, and as a general rule, the tuition and other fees for attendance in private elementary and secondary schools of the proprietary type or independent religious order as distinguished from the parish parochial school are high. For this reason, it is not difficult to explain the prevalence of the major numbers of these schools in those states which have the largest urban centers of wealth." Taken from the same source, New York state with "its enrollment of 402,709 elementary and secondary pupils accounts for 15.4 per cent of the total private school enrollment." Probably there is some relationship between the distribution of private schools and the attitude of the community. For there are

sections in this country where a stigma is attached to sending a child to public schools, unless the family cannot afford to do otherwise. Even parents that cannot pay the fee will apply for a scholarship to a private school. In New York City, the feeling seems to be especially strong. Consequently, parents otherwise democratic refuse to allow their children to go to public school. That many of these schools are over-crowded, regimented and in other ways inadequate justifies the practice in their minds. "Why should I sacrifice my child?" is the way they put it.

It is understandable that these parents wish for better conditions for their children than exist in the public schools today. How can the broader concept of education—preparation for living together—be reached when school contacts are restricted by material advantages and class distinctions? Even when there are scholarships as Justice Botein says in reference to Horace Mann-Lincoln School, "a fair cross-section in the non-tuition group would still be overbalanced and the School's character determined by the large core of tuition-paying students. Besides how about the rest of the children, that have no chance to go to private school?"

The result of having two kinds of schools, public and private, can be summarized as follows. Those who have the least at home receive the least at school. To quote from "*Unfinished Business*," an illustrated pamphlet by John K. Norton and Eugene S. Lawler, published by the National Education Association and the American Council of Education in 1946: "The poorest schools are generally found in the poverty communities where the home environment is not of the best." Thus the public school is affected, too. In a word, a premium is put on money in education since there are better schools where it exists. This is unfair and also unwise. How can there be progress if society does not try to equalize the existence of its growing children through education? Yet probably this is inevitable with the school system torn asunder as it is today. Nor can the effect on the children be discounted.

Two girls in their teens were exchanging school experiences. Mary went to a public school in a New England college town, Ruth to a private progressive school in New York City.

Afterwards Mary remarked:

"Ruth didn't think much of my school. She kept saying that the program seemed so monotonous."

Perhaps Ruth was justified in thinking as she did. Her progressive school may have been the more exciting of the two. But it had not taught her that smugness is hardly a democratic attitude.

The crux of the matter is that unless children receive the same chance to develop their mental capacity, our democratic theories are not being fully realized.

With an equal opportunity for every child, need and merit should be the only guides. Children who have the least at home should receive the most from the schools. Education should strive to counteract meager environment. Guidance—which not all parents can give—should be part of the program. An understanding and well-trained teacher can be a vital influence to the pupils as well as a great help to their families. The school should provide a wholesome and attractive atmosphere, thus enriching the daily existence of the students, particularly those that have so little otherwise. As *Unfinished Business* says: "Poor communities need good schools."

The hope of civilization lies in elevating human beings from the bottom up. Merit is not confined to the fortunate children. Intellectual ability cannot be measured by the size of the family pocket-book. Achievement varies between the rich and the poor alike. The schools must recognize their responsibility and be fit agents of a satisfactory educational program that reaches every corner of this vast land. "Education is more important than ever before," truly states *Unfinished Business*.

Does this mean that the role of private assistance to education is over? By no means! Only it must change its emphasis by broadening the group it serves. Pioneering in education must be applicable to all American children, not just a selected few. Quoting again from Justice Botein's "Opinion": "A very important and fundamental deficiency of the (private) laboratory school, . . . is that even if it is re-

sponsible for productive experimentation, it cannot and does not carry over the results into the public schools of the country." Instead of sponsoring private schools and paying for individual children's tuition, personal funds should expand and improve the service of the public school. In a small way this is being done today through parents' clubs and similar groups that donate special equipment to the schools that their children attend. Does this not show that the idea could be spread to all parents if their children were part of the public school system? Doubtless, too, this would arouse general interest more quickly, which would benefit the schools.

With every boy and girl in the same school system, it is reasonable to assume that the parents would put pressure on the authorities to raise the standards. Because these parents would include the professional leaders, many of whom now devote their time and energies to private schools, their efforts would be more likely to meet with success. Since their children would be involved, overcoming the lag in public education would have a strong personal appeal, and the value of a unified school system would be apparent. The mingling of children of all races, creeds and levels of society has deeper implications than just theoretical learning about democracy. The public school offers this opportunity through daily contacts in school and through the meeting of boys and girls from other backgrounds. Such an experience should not be missed by any child because it lays the foundation for democratic living.

In conclusion, the problem of bringing up children in a democracy must be faced squarely. Equal educational advantages for every child will lead to a broader outlook intellectually and socially. Presumably the public school would improve if all children depended on it. Socially, a deeper understanding of people would result from mingling in school. Thus democracy would be fostered in the true sense, including emotional feelings as well as political rights. Real faith in our American ideals demands an active tribute from education, not just lip service to the democratic theory.

Thomas Jefferson and Education

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"Here was buried Thomas Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence, of the Statute of Virginia for religious freedom, and father of the University of Virginia." This, Jefferson's personally written inscription for his tombstone, gives an insight into the accomplishments he deemed most noteworthy in his own life. As a matter of fact, the University was the realization of only a phase of his views on education.

There was a great need for educational development in the first years of our growing nation. It was with this need in mind that Jefferson wrote his three educational measures and presented them to the Virginia legislature with the hope that they would be adopted by that assembly. With his flair for organization, he made specific plans for implementing his proposals. The first bill provided for the division of the state into twenty-four districts, in each of which there would be a school for teaching geography, grammar, classical learning and higher mathematics. Each county, in turn, would be laid off into wards of a size and population sufficient for maintaining a school, wherein reading, writing and arithmetic would be taught. In this bill Jefferson placed the responsibility for education where he thought it belonged, namely, on the state. His second measure proposed an amendment to the constitution of William and Mary College for the purpose of enlarging the college's sphere of science and bringing it to the status of a university. The establishment of a library constituted Jefferson's third educational project.

Jefferson, however, failed to secure the backing of the legislature on these bills. A provision in the first bill left it up to the court of each county to determine whether that body would enact the measure; the second bill was defeated on religious ground; dissenters feared the plan would give ascendancy to the Anglican sect; the bill to establish a public library was also doomed to failure.

The fact that the Virginia legislature was not

far-sighted enough to adopt these measures did not deter Jefferson from pursuing his educational ideas, as his personal correspondence proves. Many letters were written either to urge others to adopt his measures or to give his friends personal advice on education.

Why not send Americans to Europe for an education? This question prompted Jefferson in 1785, while Minister to France, to write his reasons for dissenting to the young John Bannister, Jr., as he saw it the pseudo-sophistication which an American youth would gain in Europe would lead to his decadence in knowledge, morals, health, habits and happiness. Furthermore, what had Europe to offer, he wanted to know, that a boy could not find right at home? With a closing admonition he tells Bannister that the most respected men in America were those who had been educated here and whose manners, morals and habits were most perfectly homogeneous with those of the country. In the summer of 1816, Jefferson informed John Taylor that during the forty years since he had proposed his elementary school plan to the Virginia legislature, he had not ceased trying to have the counties divided into wards and to establish a primary school in each.

Jefferson, always a family man at heart, took the upbringing of his daughters as a personal matter. By 1818, he had some very clear notions on the education of young girls, as we find in a letter written from Monticello to Nathaniel Burwell. Girls, he believed, must receive a solid education to enable them to raise their own children. A great obstacle to the education of young ladies was their passion for romantic novels and poetry which resulted in the loss of much time in such idle endeavor, and worse still, the ladies lost a taste for wholesome reading. It was befitting a girl that she learn the technique of managing a household.

At seventy-three, Jefferson wrote to Joseph Cabell bemoaning the spendthrift ways of the school system. The low state of common education in Virginia was not due to poverty, he insisted, but to the want of orderly system.

More money was being paid for the education of a part of the people than would need to be paid for the education of all, if things were systematically arranged.

Jefferson's real "brain child" was the University of Virginia. The form, architecture, and arrangement of the material structure seem to have been all his own. The idea of a university education was a part of his political philosophy. It was by means of a systematic cultivation of the best geniuses in the land that he hoped to carry all the sciences to their highest degree of perfection, and among them, especially, the science of free government. On March 7, 1825, the University was opened for the reception of students. With the establishment of the University, Jefferson could pronounce with happiness his "nunc dimittis" to the things of time, and, as a matter of fact, the moment was not long deferred.

A definite continental influence marked Jefferson's educational theories and plans. During the time he spent in France, he studied the educational system of the Old World. The French system of state education, crowned by a national university, was the ideal sought by Jefferson. So impressed was he with the Uni-

versity of Geneva that in 1794 he urged Washington to transfer the University *en bloc* to the United States. Fortunately, Washington did not accede to the plan. Had this rather extraordinary desire prevailed, Jefferson might not have worked to establish the University of Virginia and the Republic would have been the loser.

Unlike the Europeans, however, Jefferson believed in the education of the common man. To build up and maintain a democratic way of life, he knew that the masses must have the necessary knowledge to take an active part in governmental affairs; he believed that the most dangerous state for any nation was to have a few enlightened intellectuals rule totally indifferent and ignorant subjects. He was quick to recognize the evils that could befall an uneducated public in a democracy.

Jefferson nowhere more completely summarized his aims in education than in those lines of his that have become a classic: "Enlighten the people generally and tyranny and oppression of mind and body will vanish like the evil spirits at the dawn of day." Here, indeed, is much food for meditation for democracy-minded people of the world today.

Short Answer Tests in American History¹

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Unit VI — Test A. True or False

(Follow same directions as in Unit I — Test A)

- 1. Railroad building was done entirely with private capital.
- 2. The Panic of 1873 was caused by wildcat financing of railroads.
- 3. Cyrus W. Field is best known for his work in connection with the laying of the Atlantic Cable.
- 4. The Homestead Act helped to promote public housing.
- 5. The industrial revolution did not affect agriculture.
- 6. Gold was the only important metal that enriched the West.
- 7. Monopolistic practices started in the field of railroad transportation.
- 8. Big business is generally bad.
- 9. There has been a general tendency for increasing government control over business.
- 10. Samuel Gompers was in favor of organizing a Labor Party.
- 11. Employers generally favored labor unions when they first came into being.
- 12. The Pendleton Civil Service Act put all federal employees on civil service.

¹ This is the third of three sets of tests which cover the field of American history. They are planned to supplement the pamphlet *Unit Outlines in American History*, and together with answer sheets, will be reprinted and available for classroom use.

-13. The Interstate Commerce Commission has the power to regulate the rates of a transportation system within a state.
-14. The Sherman Anti-Trust Act put an end to large trusts.
-15. Theodore Roosevelt favored a large and powerful navy.
-16. Our entrance into the Spanish-American War was an extension of the Monroe Doctrine.
-17. The 48th state admitted into the Union was Arizona, in 1912.
-18. The Panic of 1893 forced the repeal of the Sherman Silver Act.
-19. Our immigration laws after the 1920's encouraged further immigration.
-20. Most of the New Deal laws were in the nature of a social revolution.

Unit VI — Test B. Matching Test

(Follow same directions as in Unit I — Test B)

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. An oil scandal involving high government officials | a. Amendment XVII |
| 2. Election of senators directly by the people | b. Gerrymandering |
| 3. The arranging of election districts within a state so as to give control to the dominant political party | c. Bimetallism |
| 4. A money system which uses two metals, usually gold and silver, as a standard of money | d. Teapot Dome |
| 5. A nickname for the Republican Party | e. G.O.P. |
| | f. Legal Tender |
| 6. The first transcontinental railroad | a. Granges |
| 7. Method for making steel | b. Industrial revolution |
| 8. Organizations of farmers | c. Sante Fe |
| 9. Gave rise to labor unions | d. Union Pacific |
|10. Gave rise to the factory system | e. Bessemer process |
| | f. Mugwumps |
|11. A governor of a state friendly to labor | a. Uriah H. Stevens |
|12. Founder of the Knights of Labor | b. J. P. Morgan |
|13. A famous financier | c. John P. Altgeld |
|14. A labor leader connected with the Pullman strike of 1894 | d. Samuel Gompers |
|15. A steel magnate and a philanthropist | e. Eugene V. Debs |
| | f. Andrew Carnegie |
|16. A corrupt political machine of a large city | a. The Credit Mobilier Case |
|17. Political corruption involving government officials and the railroads | b. The Industrial Workers of the World |
|18. A radical labor union | c. The Tweed Ring |
|19. Used to prevent strikes | d. The Whiskey Ring |
|20. Deals made by congressmen to vote for each others' bills | e. The American Federation of Labor |
| | f. Injunction |
| | g. Log rolling |
| | h. Political patronage |

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
|21. Labor's Magna Charta | a. The Smoot-Hawley Tariff |
|22. Allowed the Secretary of State to enter into trade agreements with other countries | b. The Reciprocal Trades Act |
|23. Controlled prices during World War II | c. Office of War Mobilization |
|24. Introduced codes of fair competition | d. The National Labor Relations Act |
|25. Changed the date for the first meeting of a new Congress | e. O.P.A. |
| | f. National Industrial Recovery Act |
| | g. Lame Duck Amendment |

Unit VI — Test C. Multiple Choice

(Follow same directions as in Unit IV — Test C)

- 1. The presidential nominee of the Progressive Republicans in 1912 was (1) Robert M. LaFollette, (2) Theodore Roosevelt, (3) William H. Taft.
- 2. A famous newspaper commentator who wrote about "muckraking" was (1) Lincoln Steffens, (2) Joseph Pulitzer, (3) Walter Lippman.
- 3. The labor leader who helped to establish the Congress of Industrial Organizations was (1) John L. Lewis, (2) William Green, (3) Eugene V. Debs.
- 4. The man who said "You shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold" was (1) William Sherman, (2) Grover Cleveland, (3) William Jennings Bryan.
- 5. A political party towards the end of the 19th century that advocated many reforms later adopted by the Democrats was the (1) Populists, (2) Prohibitionists, (3) Free Soilers.
- 6. The Republican party won many elections after the Civil War chiefly because it (1) was not politically corrupt, (2) claimed credit for saving the Union, (3) was a friend of labor.
- 7. The political party that favored government control of the sale of liquor was the (1) Populists, (2) Progressives, (3) Prohibitionists.
- 8. Economic or government planning gained in favor under the administration of (1) Theodore Roosevelt, (2) Franklin D. Roosevelt, (3) William Howard Taft.
- 9. The increase in our national debt has been due primarily to government expenditures on (1) war or defense against war, (2) relief and social security, (3) administrative costs.
-10. A constitutional provision giving citizens the power to remove an elected official before his term expires is known as the (1) initiative, (2) referendum, (3) recall.
-11. A new type of city government that is designed to do away with political corruption is the (1) city-manager plan, (2) mayor-council plan, (3) weak mayor-council plan.
-12. Women received the right to vote in (1) 1900, (2) 1919, (3) 1916.
-13. The federal agency empowered to investigate big business practices is the (1) Interstate Commerce Commission, (2) Federal Communications Commission, (3) Federal Trade Commission.
-14. An agency created to help put industry back on its feet was the (1) Reconstruction Finance Corporation, (2) Home Owners Loan Corporation, (3) Federal Housing Administration.
-15. The Political Action Committee was sponsored by (1) industry, (2) agriculture, (3) labor.
-16. Labor's Non-Partisan League in 1936 supported the election of the (1) Democrats, (2) Republicans.
-17. The Taft-Hartley Act is favored by (1) employers, (2) labor unions.
-18. One of the unsolved economic problems facing our country is (1) failure to produce enough food, (2) failure to conserve our natural resources, (3) inability to organize for war.

-19. A departure on income tax collection in the 1940's was the passage of the (1) excess profits tax, (2) amusement tax, (3) the pay-as-you-go tax.
-20. One of the pressing problems, faced by all large cities, that is a product of the automobile is (1) juvenile delinquency, (2) air pollution, (3) traffic control.

Unit VII — Test A. True or False

(Follow same directions as in Unit I — Test A)

- 1. George Washington's farewell address had a marked influence on the future foreign policy of the United States.
- 2. Our entrance into the War of 1812 showed that we definitely wanted to be a part of European power politics.
- 3. Our "good neighbor" policy towards Latin America began with the Spanish-American War.
- 4. The term American applies only to the people of the United States.
- 5. "Jingoism" and "war-mongering" mean the same thing.
- 6. Our policy of non-interference in the affairs of other countries applied to Latin American countries as well as to European countries.
- 7. Our foreign policy has been somewhat impractical in that we wanted to steer clear of European politics but wanted to have economic and cultural relations with Europe.
- 8. The terms "dollar diplomacy" and "big stick" were applied to the foreign policy of Theodore Roosevelt.
- 9. The United States has never been an imperialistic nation.
-10. The Monroe Doctrine gradually forced the United States into being a protector of the South American countries.
-11. American attitude to the Chinese following the "Boxer Rebellion" showed that we had imperialistic designs upon China.
-12. Our early contacts with Asia left its people with feelings of friendliness towards the United States.
-13. Japan's policy toward China was in some respects no different than the policy of other imperialistic nations.
-14. After World War II most of the Asiatic peoples who had been under Japanese domination welcomed back European control.
-15. After gaining her independence, India severed all relations with England.
-16. The formation of the Republic of Indonesia was encouraged by the enlightened policy of the Dutch.
-17. The mandate system, started after World War I, generally brought about friendlier relations between the mother countries and their colonies.
-18. As a result of Mussolini's invasion of Ethiopia, Italy was ousted from the League of Nations by the Allies.
-19. Africa has been of little or no importance in European power politics.
-20. The Treaty of Versailles put the blame for starting the first World War on Germany.
-21. The United States failed to join the League of Nations because of the opposition of a few powerful Senators.
-22. The United States was in favor of including the veto provision in the Security Council.
-23. The development of the atomic bomb made other weapons obsolete.
-24. The United States is opposed to a United States of Europe because such an organization would be a threat to its security.
-25. The second World War demonstrated that, in a sense, no nation really wins a war.

Unit VII — Test B. Matching Test

(Follow same directions as in Unit I — Test B)

- | | |
|---|----------------------------|
| 1. An organization designed to spread communism | a. Open Door |
| 2. Financial help given to European countries for the purpose of stopping the spread of communism | b. Lend-Lease |
| 3. A system of censorship existing in Russian-dominated countries | c. Iron Curtain |
| 4. Financial and material help given to allies fighting on our side | d. Marshall Plan |
| 5. Policy proposed by the United States to give all countries equal access to China | e. Cominform |
| | f. Power politics |
| | g. Imperialism |
| 6. A policy of steering clear of entanglements in the affairs of other countries | a. Imperialism |
| 7. A policy, adopted by Chamberlain of England, of giving in to the demands of the Nazis in order to avoid war | b. Fascism |
| 8. A theory of government which makes the state supreme | c. Appeasement |
| 9. The policy of acquiring colonial possessions so that they could serve as sources of raw materials and markets for manufactured products | d. Nationalism |
|10. Common ownership of property and all means of production | e. Capitalism |
| | f. Communism |
| | g. Isolationism |
|11. Prime Minister of India | a. Winston Churchill |
|12. Prime Minister of England | b. Mahatma Ghandi |
|13. Sponsor of reciprocal trade treaties | c. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru |
|14. Author of the Open Door Policy | d. John Hay |
|15. Founder of the Chinese Republic | e. Cordell Hull |
| | f. Sun Yat Sen |
| | g. Chiang Kai-Shek |
|16. Author of the book "One World" | a. Herbert Hoover |
|17. Food administrator in Belgium in World War I | b. Clement Atlee |
|18. Prime Minister of Labor Government in England following World War II | c. Wendell Wilkie |
|19. United States Representative to the United Nations | d. Robert Taft |
|20. One of the Signers of the Atlantic Charter | e. Warren Austin |
| | f. Franklin D. Roosevelt |
|21. Became an independent nation after being a mandate of England | a. Philippines |
|22. Formerly belonged to Spain and is now an independent country | b. Trans-Jordan |
|23. Formerly belonged to the Dutch and is now an independent nation | c. Republic of Indonesia |
| | d. Israel |
| | e. Yugoslavia |
| | f. China |

-24. A communist nation supported by the United States as a bulwark against Russia
-25. There has been much disagreement regarding United States policy towards this country, following end of World War II

Unit VII — Test C. Multiple Choice

(Follow same directions as in Unit IV — Test C)

- 1. The Platt Amendment concerned United States relations with (1) Argentina, (2) Mexico, (3) Cuba.
- 2. The construction of the Panama Canal began during the administration of (1) Theodore Roosevelt, (2) William McKinley, (3) William H. Taft.
- 3. After the Civil War the United States came to the assistance of Mexico, which was having difficulty with (1) Spain, (2) England, (3) France.
- 4. Theodore Roosevelt was instrumental in arranging a peace treaty involving (1) France and Spain, (2) Russia and Japan, (3) Japan and China.
- 5. The Bering Sea controversy, involving fishing rights in Alaska waters, was settled by arbitration in favor of (1) the United States, (2) Britain.
- 6. In the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, England and the United States pledged (1) to support each other in case of war, (2) not to obtain exclusive control over a canal in Central America, (3) not to interfere with each other's trade.
- 7. The Philippines were acquired by the United States as a result of a war with (1) Mexico, (2) Germany, (3) Spain.
- 8. United States expenditures during the single war year of 1944 approximated (1) 100 billion dollars, (2) 60 billion dollars, (3) 40 billion dollars.
- 9. Communist Russia was recognized by the United States in (1) 1918, (2) 1933, (3) 1939.
-10. The Schuman proposal regarding France and Germany concerned a (1) military alliance, (2) cultural alliance, (3) an economic alliance.
-11. Russia and the United States have been least able to agree on a plan for the control of (1) atomic energy, (2) admission of Palestine to the United Nations, (3) organization of the International Court of Justice.
-12. The Constitution of the United States provides that war may be declared only by the (1) President, (2) Congress, (3) President and Congress.
-13. The United States national debt at the end of World War II was approximately (1) 160 billion dollars, (2) 260 billion dollars, (3) 360 billion dollars.
-14. The country in South America with whom United States' relations have been most strained is (1) Argentina, (2) Chile, (3) Brazil.
-15. The Pan-American Congress is open to (1) only South American countries, (2) all countries in the North and South American Continents, (3) all countries in the North American continent.
-16. Arabia's importance in world affairs since World War II is due to its possession of rich deposits of (1) iron ore, (2) coal, (3) oil.
-17. Truman's "Point Four" program concerns (1) military assistance to backward countries, (2) economic assistance to European countries opposed to communism, (3) economic assistance to backward countries of the world.
-18. The United Nations body which took over the function of the World Court is the (1) International Court of Justice, (2) Trusteeship Council, (3) Economic and Social Council.
-19. The United Nations body in which is represented every member nation is the (1) Security Council, (2) Trusteeship Council, (3) General Assembly.

-20. The North Atlantic pact was formed for the purpose of (1) stopping the spread of communism, (2) promoting a United States of Europe, (3) preventing the spread of Nazism.

ANSWERS TO TESTS

Test A—Unit I

1. T
2. F
3. F
4. T
5. F
6. F
7. T

8. F
9. F
10. T
11. F
12. T
13. T
14. F

15. T
16. T
17. F
18. T
19. T
20. F

Test B—Unit IV

6. c
7. a
8. b
9. d
10. e

11. d
12. c
13. a
14. b
15. e

16. b
17. d
18. a
19. e
20. f

21. c
22. e
23. b
24. c
25. g

Test B—Unit I

1. b
2. g
3. d
4. d
5. e

6. f
7. c
8. e
9. d
10. a

11. f
12. h
13. b
14. g
15. d

16. e
17. a
18. d
19. c
20. f

21. b
22. e
23. c
24. j
25. g

Test A—Unit II

1. F
2. T
3. T
4. F
5. F
6. T
7. T

8. F
9. T
10. F
11. T
12. F
13. T
14. T

15. F
16. T
17. T
18. F
19. T
20. T

Test C—Unit IV

1. (1)
2. (3)
3. (2)
4. (1)
5. (2)

6. (2)
7. (3)
8. (1)
9. (1)
10. (3)

11. (3)
12. (1)
13. (3)
14. (2)
15. (2)

16. (1)
17. (2)
18. (1)
19. (1)
20. (1)

Test A—Unit V

1. F
2. F
3. T
4. F
5. T

6. F
7. T
8. F
9. T
10. T

11. F
12. F
13. F
14. T
15. T

16. F
17. F
18. T
19. F
20. F

Test B—Unit V

1. e
2. d
3. b
4. f
5. c

6. c
7. a
8. b
9. f
10. d

11. c
12. a
13. b
14. f
15. d

16. c
17. d
18. a
19. e
20. f

21. c
22. d
23. a
24. e
25. f

Test B—Unit II

1. b
2. f
3. e
4. b
5. c

6. h
7. g
8. b
9. d
10. a

11. d
12. c
13. b
14. f
15. e

16. b
17. e
18. f
19. e
20. d

Test A—Unit III

1. F
2. T
3. F
4. T
5. F

6. T
7. F
8. T
9. T
10. F

11. F
12. T
13. F
14. F
15. F

16. T
17. T
18. F
19. F
20. F

21. T
22. F
23. F
24. T
25. T

Test B—Unit III

1. d
2. e
3. a
4. b
5. c

6. c
7. e
8. a
9. b
10. d

11. c
12. b
13. a
14. e
15. d

16. d
17. b
18. a
19. f
20. c

21. c or g
22. d
23. e
24. b
25. g

Test B—Unit VI

1. d
2. a
3. b
4. c
5. e

6. d
7. e
8. a
9. b
10. b

11. c
12. a
13. b
14. e
15. f

16. c
17. a
18. b
19. f
20. g

21. d
22. b
23. e
24. f
25. g

Test C—Unit VI

1. (2)
2. (1)
3. (1)
4. (3)
5. (1)

6. (2)
7. (3)
8. (2)
9. (1)
10. (3)

11. (1)
12. (2)
13. (3)
14. (1)
15. (3)

16. (1)
17. (1)
18. (2)
19. (3)
20. (3)

Test A—Unit IV

1. F
2. T
3. F
4. T
5. F

6. T
7. T
8. T
9. T
10. F

11. F
12. F
13. T
14. F
15. T

16. T
17. F
18. T
19. T
20. F

Test A—Unit VII

1. T
2. F
3. F
4. F
5. T

6. F
7. T
8. T
9. F
10. T

11. F
12. T
13. T
14. F
15. F

16. F
17. F
18. F
19. F
20. T

21. T
22. T
23. F
24. F
25. T

Test B — Unit VII

- | | | | | |
|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. e | 6. g | 11. c | 16. c | 21. d |
| 2. d | 7. c | 12. a | 17. a | 22. a |
| 3. c | 8. b | 13. e | 18. b | 23. c |
| 4. b | 9. a | 14. d | 19. a | 24. e |
| 5. a | 10. f | 15. f | 20. f | 25. f |

Test C — Unit VII

- | | | | |
|--------|---------|---------|---------|
| 1. (3) | 6. (2) | 11. (1) | 16. (3) |
| 2. (1) | 7. (3) | 12. (2) | 17. (3) |
| 3. (3) | 8. (1) | 13. (2) | 18. (1) |
| 4. (2) | 9. (2) | 14. (1) | 19. (3) |
| 5. (2) | 10. (3) | 15. (2) | 20. (1) |

Sadder but Wiser

MARCIA POWER

Indianapolis, Indiana

One day after class I was thinking in an effortless but somehow productive way about the social studies. If it weren't for world history, I thought, I might be alive today, and the accuracy of this unbidden analysis pleased me. As the Hoosier Schoolmaster said of his spelling school, I might say of world history: "If only it had not been." I cannot place the presently lifeless body of my teaching at the feet of world history. A better teacher would not have let it get him; I shouldn't have. Still, today world history seems to me to be wholly unsuitable for the place which it is supposed to fill in the curriculum and is singularly unattractive.

Some of the avowed reasons for offering world history are: to give an overview of the world situation and culture, to emphasize the contributions of often neglected parts of the world, and to develop the student's ability and give him the opportunity to see patterns in history, aims which it would be difficult to find fault with. Had I approached achieving any of them with my class, I should feel proud. But world history meant only drudgery for the class and me, unbecoming behavior from the students, and a classroom with unnervingly low morale. One frustration was the feeling that I had little to offer the students, even if they had been the hungriest of scholars.

I made the mistake of starting into the 800-page text treading straight ahead in the traditional and obvious direction, a naive and unseeing thing to do. However, the text does purport to be a course of study. It is a generally chronological account of the chief civilizations.

The authors of the text have tried to build an understanding of the development of history by stressing in titles and chapter prefaces

ideas such as: the background of civilization, the spread of Greek civilization, the development of feudalism, the beginnings of modern science, the struggle for democracy, and the atomic age. Actually, most of the writing in the chapter subdivisions and paragraphs consists of brief statements about the persons and events concerned. World history is a survey course and the book is a survey book. The crux of my complaint is this: 800 pages of history is a good deal, and to have studied that much with profit is a considerable accomplishment; 800 pages of history in outline is vastly more history, and to study history in outline is something which is painful, unworkmanlike and which does little to mature the student. I see little difference between this outline learning and old-time memorization of fact upon fact, and I cannot help seeing some perfidy in a book which goes so quickly from imaginative design-like illustrations and words about world drama to "definitions" of epic and lyric, six terms of the treaty of Westphalia, and the reciprocity of 1909 whereby Russia's interest in the straits was recognized by Italy in return for Russia's support of Italy's designs on Tripoli and Cyrenaica.

To deny that education and understanding are based in part on knowledge of facts as arbitrary as these is impossible. But to learn or even to read that style of fact for hundreds of pages about dozens of different countries and situations seems dull and unrewarding, as well as out-of-date. Facts which would be understandable and even fascinating in a detailed study of Greece, the Reformation or the First World War become parts of a raw recital of information.

The diversity of topics and persons which might be touched is almost amusing: Lord Darnley, Amenhotep, the Duke of Alva, the Second Balkan War, Evolution, Emir Abdullah, Abelard, Suleiman the Magnificent, Albertus Magnus, Wycliffe, Zwingli, Sinn Fein, and more and more. Hundreds of others are not mentioned or alluded to in the text; they are, however, briefly "treated" and handled. The idea is to make the student familiar with the great names of history and give him some background material.

Along with Locke, Hobbess, Voltaire and Diderot in our text we "have" Rousseau, his dates, his *Social Contract* and his contribution to the nineteenth century. Rousseau's spirit is hardly one which will speak to a boy of fifteen in such a treatment. If we cannot give him more study than this—and much more—let us leave him buried on the island in the lake.

Like Hammurapi, Solon and Napoleon, Justinian codified an existing body of law. In a few lines we are told that Justinian's code included imperial edicts, a digest of decisions and the Institutes. The text wisely advises us to investigate the terms "digest," "edict," "Institutes" and "civil law." Unfamiliar as most of us are with the history of law, we need to do it.

How much material could be found on Justinian's code and neighboring subjects? We know very well that there is an untold amount of material. How much of it might be brought into a tenth grade classroom? Roman boys for a great part of their education learned and recited by heart Roman laws. Sometimes, when teaching the world history class, I thought wistfully of that procedure, which seems now so blind, because there was an honesty and a sureness, at least of immediate aim. I wonder if an American class, tenth grade, could study Roman law or the Justinian Code for a year. Would it be unspeakably boring? Would it be useless? Would materials be lacking? I can believe that a teacher full of energy and admiration for thorough study could make it work, or at least feel happy with the results, even in a community picked at random.

The improvement which I would choose first is just limiting the subject matter and studying it better. Limiting it to Roman law would be

a *tour de force*. The development of the English government, the eighteenth century and the French Revolution might make a course, or a detailed study of the First World War and years following might be chosen. With a good deal of thought and preparatory work and the aid of the beautiful, artistic and honest books in the libraries, why could not any one of dozens of periods or cultures treated in a survey course be the subject of a maturing and enjoyable course for tenth graders?

One objection may be, "Would not a detailed study of the Elizabethans or of the ancient Greeks defeat our aim of showing the student that culture is international?" I cannot think that students are really kept from making strides toward this understanding which we seek for them by being offered a thorough study in a limited field instead of a "comprehensive" study of everything. Are there really many cases in high schools today of students having warped ideas of society because they have studied one culture too exclusively and searchingly? Surely the revealing and humbling experience of a thorough study of anything would offset this danger.

You may ask: "If there are so many inviting subjects to busy a tenth-grade class, was this teacher like the barnyard animal who could not decide which bale of hay to begin on?" Certainly I longed for something to give the class, something that would be bread and not a stone, something that would fill the class with seemly respect and curiosity and a little anxiety. I can only ask for charity and ask, too, if I am the first to cleave too late to truth.

At least, some learning was going on. It is very educational to be wiser and sadder each day. It became more and more clear that it is some little job to work out a program for a social studies class, especially to hit upon exercises or questions which are not mere reading tests. To lead a class through the intricacies and past the pitfalls of an ambitious course in social studies demands a scientist's respect for precision and a visionary's broadness. While there is hope that this sad experience will sometime be fruitful, it is sobering to think that those students will never again be fifteen years old and in that classroom.

T11. Life and Affairs in the Thirteen Colonies

STUDY OUTLINE

1. The People
 - a. Their increase
 - 1) By large families. Why?
 - 2) By immigration: little to New England; to Middle and Southern Colonies; importation of Negroes; British law governing naturalization
 - b. Pushing back the frontier
 - 1) From New England into Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont
 - 2) From Middle and Southern Colonies up river valleys and through passes in the Alleghenies
 - 3) Georgia, the thirteenth colony: Oglethorpe's noble project; Georgia's beginnings next to Spanish Florida; its troubled history
 - c. Classes of population
 - 1) Reasons for (a) failure of European-style aristocracy and feudalism to take root in the colonies, and (b) growth of democratic attitudes and ways
 - 2) Class distinctions, based largely on vocations and wealth
 - 3) Servants: white apprentices, indentured servants, redemptioners; Negro slaves; relation of master and servant or slave
2. Homes and Social Life
 - a. In New England and Middle Colonies: early log cabins and cave dwellings; later houses; food and clothing; transportation; utensils, implements and crude conveniences; social life
 - b. In the South: early and later dwellings; food and clothing; transportation; implements, conveniences; imports from England; social life
 - c. Contrast of life in town and country and on the frontier
 - d. Peculiar laws and punishments: laws against extravagant dress and entertainment; laws regulating prices and wages; punishments, the many offenses punishable by death
3. Occupations
 - a. Subject to British controls through
 - 1) Parliaments laws: the Navigation Acts; purpose of laws governing "enumerated" (and "non-enumerated") articles; laws prohibiting or restricting manufactures and issuing colonial currency; Molasses Act of 1733. Benefits and drawbacks of these laws to colonists; reasons for weak enforcement of the laws, up to 1763
 - 2) English Board of Trade: its duties and authority
 - 3) English right to veto colonial laws
 - b. Principal occupations
 - 1) Agriculture: natural handicaps in New England; diversified farming in Middle Colonies; Southern dependence upon a few staples
 - 2) Fishing: New England fisheries; exports to Catholic countries of Europe, and to West Indies for the slaves
 - 3) Lumber and ship-building: valuable timber lands along Atlantic seaboard; export of masts, spars, shingles and barrel staves; shipbuilding in New England especially
 - 4) Manufacturing: hampered by English laws; blast furnaces and iron mills; fur-felt hats; woolsens and linens
 - 5) Commerce: controlled mainly by New England, New York, Pennsylvania; colonists shared in the monopoly of English trade; reasons for the importance of West Indies trade; principal colonial exports and imports
4. Religion
 - a. Established churches: Congregational Church in New England; Church of England in South—relation to England
 - b. Voluntary system in Rhode Island and Middle Colonies
 - c. Character of clergy and missionaries; the Society for Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts
 - d. Attitude toward dissenters; the various sects persecuted at times in New England and the South; growth of more liberal spirit
 - e. Great revivals and leaders of the 18th century
5. Education and Intellectual Life
 - a. Schools: public school beginnings in New England, church and neighborhood schools elsewhere; clergymen as teachers; use of tutors in South particularly and the sending of sons to schools in England
 - b. Curriculum and methods: hornbook, primer; prominence of Latin and Logic in higher schools; apprenticeship system for vocational training
 - c. The colleges founded by colonists; character of faculty, student body, curriculum
 - d. Colonial printing-presses, newspapers, literature, science; Peter Zenger and freedom of the press
 - e. Prominent leaders in intellectual life
6. Political Institutions
 - a. Three forms of colonial government; British control over colonial legislation
 - b. Political features common to the colonies: elected representative assemblies; local self-government; English common law and great statutes of Parliament as basis of colonial legal systems; courts and procedures copied from England
 - c. Colonists had rights of Englishmen: were English citizens; had right to vote, with severe restrictions; had right to share in levying taxes, to jury trial, and to security of life and property
 - d. Militia regulations: in all colonies except Pennsylvania; the "train band" and training days; weapons and other equipment

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

- Eighteenth Century Life in Williamsburg (Va.) (16 mm. sound film; 44 min.). Eastman Kodak Co., Informational Films Division, 343 State Street, Rochester 4, N. Y.
- George Washington's Virginia; Thomas Jefferson and Monticello (16 mm. sound films, color; 40 min. each). Virginia Conservation Commission, Richmond 19, Va.
- A Pioneer Home (16 mm. sound film; 10 min.). Coronet Instructional Films, 65 E. South Water Street, Chicago 1
- Growth of America (16 mm. sound film; 10 min.). American Film Registry, 28 E. Jackson Boulevard, Chicago 4
- Land of Liberty (Reel I) (16 mm. sound film; 20 min.). Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 W. 43 Street, New York 18
- Colonial Children (16 mm. sound film; 11 min.). Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc.
- History of the States series: Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia. Also, Shrines and Symbols of American Democracy (color) (filmstrips). Society for Visual Education, Inc.
- Story of America series: Land and Its First Settlers; Seaports and Towns; Self-Sufficient Farm (filmstrips). Visual Education Libraries, Visual Education Center, Floral Park, Long Island, N. Y.
- Original Thirteen States; Occupations and Amusements of the Colonists; Social and Cultural Life of the

¹ This is eleventh of a series of History Topics for American History prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

MCKINLEY'S OUTLINE MAPS. NO. 196 b. EASTERN UNITED STATES



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MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T11: COLONIAL FEATURES PRIOR TO THE REVOLUTION

1. Name each colony and label it as royal, charter, or proprietary on the eve of the Revolution. 2. In each of the major regions (New England, Middle, South) show the principal religious sects and economic products. 3. Locate the chief towns, the well-known colleges.



A ONCE FAMILIAR HOME SCENE

What caused this kind of kitchen to disappear from the ordinary American home? Why, in earlier days, did so much of family life center in the kitchen? What articles can you identify in this picture?

Colonists (filmstrips). Curriculum Service Bureau for International Studies, Inc.

Pre-Revolutionary Days & Daniel Boone (filmstrip). Pictorial Events

Life in Colonial America (20 plates); A Nation Is Born (40 plates). Informative Classroom Picture Publishers

American Colonies (12 plates, color). F. E. Compton Co. Colonial Life (25 slides). The Pageant of America Lantern Slides, by Yale University Press

J. A. & A. Lomax, *American Ballads and Folk Songs*; T. Scott, *Sing of America* (words and music of folk tunes); W. G. Tyrrell, *Musical Recordings for American History*, I, "From Colonization Through the Civil War" (secure from Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington 6, D. C.) (Cf. *Social Education*, May 1948, November 1948, and December 1949)

HISTORIES

J. T. Adams, *Provincial Society*; T. J. Wertenbaker, *The First Americans* (A History of American Life, vols. 2, 3)

C. M. Andrews, *Colonial Self-Government*; E. B. Greene, *Provincial America* (The American Nation, vols. 5, 6)

C. M. Andrews, *Colonial Folkways* and *The Fathers of New England*; S. G. Fisher, *The Quaker Colonies*; M. W. Goodwin, *Dutch and English on the Hudson*; M. Johnston, *Pioneers of the Old South* (The Chronicles of America, vols. 5-9)

R. G. Gabriel, *Toilers of Land and Sea*; M. Keir, *The March of Commerce and The Epic of Industry*; J. A. Krout, *Annals of American Sport* (The Pageant of America, vols. 3-5, 15)

J. T. Adams, *Album of American History*; I. Clark, *Old Days and Old Ways*; F. R. Dulles, *America Learns to Play*; A. M. Earle, *Colonial Dames and Good Wives*. *Child Life in Colonial Days*, *Home Life in Colonial Days*, and *Stage Coach and Tavern Days*; S. G. Fisher, *Men. Women and Manners in Colonial Times*; W. C. Langdon, *Everyday Things in America*; D. R. Prescott, *A Day in a Colonial Home*; W. K. Putney, *Teamwork in Colonial Days*; R. B. Weaver, *Amusements and Sports in America*; G. F. Willison, *Saints and Strangers*

Biographies: J. Eaton, *That Lively Man, Ben Franklin*; P. L. Haworth, *George Washington, Country Gentleman*. Consult *Dictionary of American Biography*

ATLASES

Harper's Atlas of American History; C. L. & E. H. Lord, *Historical Atlas of the United States*; C. O. Paullin, *Atlas of the Historical Geography of the United States*, Plates 60A, 61, 70C, D

STORIES

E. L. Bynner, *Agnes Surriage*; M. T. Carroll, *Man Who Dared to Care*; W. S. Davis, *Gilman of Redford*; B. M. Dix, *Blithe McBride*; N. Hawthorne, *The House of Seven Gables* and *Twice-Told Tales*; Mrs. A. D. Hewes, *Glory of the Seas*; M. Johnston, *The Great Valley*, *Prisoners of Hope*, *The Slave Ship* and *The Witch*; E. P. Kelly, *Three Sides of Agiochook*; M. Washington; M. Vance, *Martha, Daughter of Virginia*

SOURCES

H. S. Commager, *Documents of American History*, 19, 20, 22, 23, 27, 29, 30, 33; H. S. Commager & A. Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, 9-16, 58; S. E.

Forman, *Sidelights on Our Social and Economic History*, pp. 10-28, 49-63, 18-124, 201-211, 295-299, 363-372; A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, I, chs. 13, 21, 26 & II, chs. 3-6, 7-16; F. Monaghan, *Heritage of Freedom* (describes Freedom Train documents), nos. 2-4, 7, 22, 24, 73-75, 84-87; D. S. Muzzey, *Readings in American History*, Ch. II; Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States, *America*, II ("Colonization")

ENGLISH TRADE LAWS AND COLONIAL PENAL LAWS

Trade Laws

An Act for the Encouraging and increasing of Shipping and Navigation.

For the increase of Shipping and encouragement of the Navigation of this Nation, . . . Bee it Enacted by the Kings most Excellent Majesty and by the Lords and Comons in this present Parliament assembled and the Authoritie therof That from and after [December 1, 1660] . . . noe Goods or Commodities whatsoever shall be Imported into or Exported out of any Lands Islands Plantations or Territories to his Majesty belonging . . . in any other Ship or Ships Vessell or Vessells whatsoever but in such Ships or Vessells as doe truly . . . belong only to the people of England or Ireland Dominion of Wales . . . and belonging to any of the said Lands Islands Plantations or Territories as the Proprietors and right Owners therof and wherof the Master and three fourthes of the Marriners at least are English under the penalty of the Forfeiture and Losse of all the Goods and Commodities which shall be Imported into, or Exported out of, any of the aforesaid places . . .

[§XVIII.] . . . from and after [April 1, 1661] noe sugars Tobaccho Cotton Wool Indicoes Ginger Fustick or other dyeing wood of the Growth Production of any English Plantations in America Asia or Africa shall be shipped carryed conveyed or transported from any of the said English Plantations to any Land Island Territory Dominion Port or place whatsoever other than to such English Plantations as doe belong to His Majesty . . . —12 Charles II, ch. 18 [1660], *Statutes of the Realm*, V, 246-250.

An Act for the Encouragement of Trade.

[§IV.] . . . [Be it enacted that after March 25, 1664] noe Commoditie of the Growth Production or Manufacture of Europe shall be imported into any Land Island Plantation Colony Territory or Place to His Majesty belonging, . . . but what shall be bona fide and without fraude laden and shipped in England Wales . . . and in English built Shipping . . . and whereof the Master and three Fourthes of the Marriners at least are English, . . . —15 Charles II, chapter 7 [1663]; *Statutes of the Realm*, V, 449.

An Act for encouraging the Importation of Naval Stores from her Majesty's Plantations in America.

. . . Be it therefore enacted . . . That every Person or Persons that shall [within nine years from Jan. 1, 1705] import or cause to be imported into this Kingdom, directly from any of her Majesty's English Colonies or Plantations in America . . . shall have and enjoy as a Reward or Premium for such Importation . . . as follows, (viz.)

II. For good and merchantable Tar per tun, containing eight Barrels, . . . four Pounds.

Fod good and merchantable Pitch per tun, . . . to be brought in eight Barrels, four Pounds.

For good and merchantable Rozin or Turpentine per tun, . . . to be brought in eight Barrels, three Pounds.

For Hemp, Water rotted, bright and clean, per Tun, . . . six Pounds.

For all Masts, Yards, and Bowsprits, per Tun, allowing forty-Foot to each Tun, . . . one Pound. . . —3 and 4 Anne, ch. 10 [1704]; *Statutes at Large*, IV, 182.

An Act to prevent the Exportation of Hats out of any of his Majesty's Colonies or Plantations in America

. . . from and after [September 29, 1732] no Hats

or Felts whatsoever, . . . shall be shipt . . . within any of the British Plantations, . . . and also that no Hats or Felts, . . . shall be loaden upon any Horse, Cart or other Carriage, . . . to be . . . conveyed out of any of the said British Plantations to any other of the British Plantations, or to any other place whatsoever, . . . —5 George II, ch. 22 [1732]; *Statutes at Large*, VI, 89-90.

IX. And, that Pig and Bar Iron made in his Majesty's Colonies in America may be further manufactured in this Kingdom, Be it further enacted . . . [that] no Mill or other Engine for Slitting or Rolling of Iron, or any Plateing Forge to work with a Tilt Hammer, or any Furnace for making Steel, shall be erected, or . . . continued, in any of his Majesty's Colonies in America; . . . every Person or Persons so offending shall, for every such Mill, Engine, Forge or Furnace, forfeit the Sum of two hundred Pounds of lawful Money of Great Britain. . . —23 George II, ch. 29 [1750]; *Statutes at Large*, VII, 261-263.

PENAL LAWS

Penal Laws

It is therefore Ordered by this Court and the Authority thereof; That if any person shall commit Burglary, by breaking up any Dwelling House, or shall Rob any person in the Field or High-ways, such a person so offending for the first offence, shall be Branded on the Forehead with the letter (B.) if he shall offend in the same kinde the seconde time, he shall be Branded as before, and also be severely whipt, and if he shall fall into the same offence the third time, he shall be put to death as being incorrigible.

And if any person shall commit such Burglary, or Rob in the Fields or House on the Lords day, besides the former punishment, he shall for the first offence have one of his Ears cut off, and for the second offence in the same kinde, he shall lose his other ear in the same manner, and if he fall into the same offence the third time, he shall be put to death as aforesaid.—*General Laws of Connecticut*, ed. of 1673, p. 81.

Be it enacted, &c. That if any person being sixteen years of age, or upwards, shall wittingly or willingly make or publish a Lye, which may tend to the damage or hurt of any particular person, or with intent to deceive & abuse the people with false news or reports; He shall be fined for every such offence Ten shillings, or sit in the stocks an hour.—*New Hampshire Province Laws*, I, 67 (1682).

It is ordered, that Philip Ratliffe shalbe whipped, have his ears cutt off, fyned 40^l, & banished out of ye lymitts of this jurisdiction, for vttering mallitious & scandalous speeches against the gount & the church of Salem, &c. . . —*Massachusetts Colony Records*, I, 88 (June 14, 1631).

It is ordered, that Josias Plastowe shall (for stealeing 4 basketts of corne from the Indians) retorne them 8 basketts againe, be fined V^l, & hereafter to be called by the name of Josias, & not Mr, as formerly hee vsed to be. . . —*Massachusetts Colony Records*, I, 92 (Sept. 27, 1631).

Robert Shorthose, for swearing by the bloud of God, was sentenced to have his tongue put into a cleft stick, & to stand so by the space of haulfe an houre.—*Massachusetts Colony Records*, I, p. 177 (Sept. 6, 1636).

It is ordered, Common Scoulds shall be punished with the Ducking Stoole.—*Rhode Island Colony Records*, I, 185 (1647).

Women causing scandalous suites to be ducked.

WHEREAS oftentimes many brabling women often slander and scandalize their neighbours for which their poore husbands are often brought into chargeable and vexatious suites, and cast in greate damages; Bee it therefore enacted by the authority aforesaid that in actions of slander occasioned by the wife as aforesaid after judgment passed for the damages the women shalbe punished by ducking; . . . —Hening, *Statutes at Large of Va.*, II, pp. 166-167 (Dec., 1662).

The Military Frontier

HARRY R. STEVENS

Department of History, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina

It is more than fifty years since the "frontier thesis" was presented to American historians. Since that time there has been abundant development, criticism, and reinterpretation of the thesis. There have emerged the frontiers of the trader and explorer, the miner, the rancher, the farmer, the urbanite and many others. But very few historians have given any consistent attention to the military frontier. The other frontiers are studied systematically, common features identified, described, analyzed and interpreted. The characteristic of repetition in successive areas with local variations has been stressed, and the relationship of each successive stage to preceding and following stages carefully explored. But military institutions, life and achievements enter the story only as parts of the narrative.

Yet even a casual examination of the textbooks on the frontier shows that the military frontier is perhaps more nearly universal than any of the others. It was to be found on the Atlantic coast, and along almost every portion of the westward advance to the Pacific and beyond. It has existed from the seventeenth century to the twentieth. It has been closely associated with each of the other frontiers, sometimes with one or another of them, sometimes ahead of them, sometimes behind. The story of westward expansion is full of military activities; but rarely are they given consideration as a frontier.

It is understandable that the military frontier should have been slighted. While the rest of the frontier story was being explored and written, there was a strong aversion to military history. At the beginning of this century historians were much taken by economic affairs and then by social activities. Later there was a deliberate turning away from what was called "drum and trumpet history." Textbooks written after the First World War gave scant attention to war and armies, and there was little interest in studying the problems connected with them. But it is impossible to give a full and intelligible

story of America's past without them; and thus it happens that, excluded at the front door, they have nevertheless crept in through the side window until perhaps more mention is made of military episodes and men in textbooks on the West than of any other aspect of the frontier.

The complexity of the military frontier may be another reason for its neglect. It was not always first, nor always last; it did not follow the rather neat pattern of successive stages; yet it was always there. It involved armies, at times, and again unorganized—or even disorganized—militia, small detachments of troops, volunteer associations and even individual fighting. It might be static, with fixed posts, stations, garrisons, or lines; or dynamic, with armies in motion and battles taking place. It involved problems of personnel, organization, administration, training, equipment, supplies and operations, both strategic and tactical. It impinged on almost every other phase of frontier life. It was closely related to politics and diplomacy. It is an extremely broad subject; yet it is definite, clearly recognizable, and a decisively effective phase of the frontier.

The possibilities in the study of the military frontier are tremendous, and the possibilities in teaching are equally broad. The story is picturesque and colorful; it has an essential quality of action to attract the imagination not yet prepared for more abstract or generalized qualities. It is filled with heroism and with outstanding names. One need only think of young George Washington or the Green Mountain Boys, General Harrison at Tippecanoe, or Davy Crockett at the Alamo. Finally, the military frontier provides the essential connecting link between the frontier and diplomatic history. It is impossible for historians now to discuss the frontier simply in terms of the settlement by American pioneers of "free or cheap land." It involved too many wars and was conditioned too much by diplomacy to be isolated in such a way. Yet the ranchers, miners, traders and

farmers by themselves do not provide a connecting thread to the diplomats and congressmen who handled those crucial foreign problems. The military frontier, however, very often did. It was frequently the highly sensitive nerve ending that led from the point of contact with hostile forces, British, Indian, Spanish or Mexican, directly to the highest levels of government, to transmit the impulse of frontier conditions to the motor control centers of government.

A recognition of the military frontier as a frontier, as part of the process of expansion, and as an important aspect of it is the first re-

quirement for developing it both as a teaching field and as an area of study. The possibilities are vast: it has both national (and international) features together with very special local interest. Projects on frontier military life can be put into action with reasonably simple motivation wherever there are local evidences of military activity. Scholarly exploration of the field is still in its early stages. Because the action of the military frontier so often had a quality of finality about it, the story has an element of decisiveness, a dramatic interest possessed by few others. One may hope that as a part of the frontier story, the military may be accorded the position it deserves.

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

Chairman, Social Studies Department, Dobbins Vocational-Technical School, Philadelphia

Once again the world, last summer, was on the verge of a global war which, experts tell us, had in it the seeds of destruction for much of Western Civilization. One might ask, cynically, whether a civilization which in a period of two generations produced two world wars and is now on the brink of a third one is worth preserving. Those of us who can see the bright as well as the dark side of things know, of course, that there is much good in our present civilization. Yet as students of history we are familiar with the phrase that "history repeats itself," and that there were great civilizations in the past which were destroyed because they contained within themselves suicidal forces. One thinks, in this connection, of Freud's postulate regarding the two instinctive drives that inhabit the individual—the ambivalent existence of a death and a life instinct. If that be true of the individual may it also be true of societies which are aggregates of individuals? It does seem as if a death instinct has been in control over our civilization.

This new threat to world peace, which is increasingly putting the United States on a complete war footing, has renewed old fears as well as reemphasized old responsibilities. The teacher has long ago gone beyond the responsi-

bilities originally his, by virtue of his being in *loco parentis*. War or the threat of war add to these responsibilities. Teachers must keep their fingers on the pulse of the nation and support the view that the end justifies the means, even if the latter involve killing and being killed. They must in their own way help the young people placed in their charge to see justice in war when what everyone really wants is peace. Of course, there are the newspapers and magazines, and the radio, television and the movies to help in this effort. However, the teachers have, in a sense, the more personal touch in this responsibility.

There's much interpretation to be done. Late in July of this year, the M. C. of a local radio station, which caters in some of its programs to teen agers, was interviewing a young man eighteen years old. The conversation ran somewhat like this:

"I see you're wearing a Marine uniform."

"Yes, I joined the reserves after I graduated. Now I am called to active duty."

"Do you think you'll be sent to Korea?"

"I guess so."

"How do you feel about it?"

"I don't like it."

"Why not? Whom should they send?"

"They ought to take the veterans."

"Don't you think it's unfair?"

"Well . . . I don't know . . . They could put an end to it quicker than young untrained soldiers."

"But after all the veterans have already done it once. Many of them have families and responsibilities. Don't you think it's fairer to take those who haven't yet served?"

"Well . . . I . . . guess so."

In the next few seconds the young marine was permitted to say "hello" over the radio to as many of his young friends as he could in the allotted time. Laughing, he called out the names and left in good spirit. Yet, it was obvious that he had felt pressed to agree with a point of view to which he was considerably opposed. There was a question in this incident left partly unanswered. What is fair in war?

We all know the answer. War itself is unfair. War is stupid. War is cruel. Yet war is like an operation that removes an eye, an arm, or a leg. It is necessary sometimes in order to save the rest of the body. Once we're put to it, we must fight in order to preserve the kind of life we think is dear to us. That we all are compelled to accept. At no time are people as united as in a fight for self-preservation. Whether it is more fair to send young people to the front rather than older people cannot be answered. The exigencies of war create certain inevitable patterns. Undoubtedly, the soldier on the firing line suffers and gives the most for the benefit of all others. No one, on the home front, can compare his lot with that of the soldier. Yet, in total war, to make possible victory for the soldier, the home front is important too. Both the home front and the battle front must be kept in good morale. The spirit of sacrifice is not enough to keep the morale high. The soldier and the worker must feel that their sacrifices are not in vain; that others do not unduly profit by their sacrifices.

If we consider sacrifices, then certainly no teacher in a classroom (as well as no other person not actually on the firing line) ought to complain about his lot. However, teachers are human. While they know that they are sacrificing less than the soldier, they cannot help comparing themselves with other civilians on the home front. They are still faced with the problems of every day living which involves

buying food, paying rent, getting the baby a new pair of shoes, and occasionally taking their wives to the movies to keep up their morale. Teachers know what happened as the result of the last war.

In a recent speech made by Harland Cleveland, deputy administrator of the E.C.A., he spoke about the basic wants of modern man; "Stated in the most abstract form, modern man needs a sense of well being, or what we call high morale." Then he listed and described four basic wants. They are not new to us, but they are excellently expressed and therefore worth repeating:

"First, I would say, a man wants a sense of security. A man likes to feel that he can predict with some assurance the conditions in which he and his family can live and grow, without a constant gnawing fear that his personal world will be shaken by some great man-made calamity. People will live for generations on the edge of an active volcano; but they will not be content to live in a society where the fear of bandits, local or international, has to be uppermost in their minds.

"Second, a man wants a sense of achievement. Any individual wants to feel that he is producing, achieving, creating something which he, and others, think is valuable. He must feel that he is performing somewhere near the top of the range of his own capabilities and he must also feel that he personally, and the group or society of which he is a part, is "getting somewhere" and that the horizon of his world is expanding.

"Third, a man wants a sense of equity, or justice—particularly as regards his standard of living. A man has to feel, not only that he is getting enough to fulfill what he regards as his minimum economic needs; he must also feel that he is getting a reasonable share of society's total product—a share that is not necessarily equal, but is, as he sees it, equitable. In an expanding economy like ours, this means that men expect a constantly rising standard of living, as we Americans do.

"Fourth, a man wants a sense of participation, or what a psychologist might call a feeling of 'belonging.' A man must feel that

he has some degree of control over the decisions that directly affect his own living and his own destiny."¹

It might surprise people to learn how many teachers feel inadequate with respect to most or all of these four basic wants. At one time the teacher was a very secure person. The second world war greatly lessened this security. With prices constantly rising and teachers' salaries never catching up, the teacher no longer is economically secure. He can no longer even look without fear toward his retirement, for what may seem to be now an adequate pension (and it is not in many cases) may as a result of future inflation be cut to half or less than its present value. Of course, the social security pensioner is no better off, but that doesn't add to the teacher's feeling of security.

At one time the teacher was a highly respected person in the community. Today, he is a pitied individual. "Oh, you're a teacher." That means "We know what you make. It's too bad." Teaching, in terms of social prestige and recognition, has fallen considerably since the last war. What it does to the professional thinking and the morale of the teacher is not, in many cases, very healthy.

That teachers have felt frustrated and inadequate since the last war has been evident to many people—certainly to the teachers. Not

even five years after the end of the war have salaries of teachers caught up with their pre-war values in terms of real income. Now comes the threat of a third world war. Obviously the teacher is aware that much more is involved, in terms of total values, than merely his own standard of living. The teacher is aware of greater sacrifices made by others. He can, perhaps, more than other people, think philosophically of what a third world war may mean. But, as we stated, the teacher is human. In his day-to-day living, he must respond as do other people to all the big and little pressures of life, which involve values having to do with security, recognition, prestige, creativeness, and just plain eating and paying rent. It seems that the persons whose greatest responsibility during each new crisis is to help build the morale of others are being threatened with loss of their own morale.

Wars are fought for ideals. We have fought the last two wars for democratic ideals. Translated into terms meaningful to the individual citizen the ideals we have fought for embody the four basic wants described above—security, achievement, justice, participation. We have no doubt that the teacher, like the soldier, will live up to his responsibilities. Yet in building a new world,—for wars build new worlds,—the problems of the teacher, in terms of the four basic wants, must not be neglected.

¹ *The Evening Bulletin*, Phila., July 26, 1950.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.

Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin, has released its Second Annual Edition (1950): "Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms." Note the new features on pages 2 and 3. The instructions on "How to Use Slidefilms, etc." on P. 4 are very thorough and informative. The price of the Second Annual Edition is \$3.00.

Catalog No. 50 (free) issued by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa., gives a comprehensive listing of visual aids for sale to use in social studies classes.

Coronet News Bureau
65 E. South Water St.
Chicago, Illinois
FILMS

The following are 16 mm. films.

The Italian Peninsula. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Educational Collaborator: J. H. Garland, Associate Professor of Geography, University of Illinois.

Within the boundaries of the "Italian Boot" is a country of unusual geography. Your stu-

dent will meet a silk factory worker in Milan, a rice farmer in the Po valley, a high school student in Rome and a citrus fruit grower near Naples. Intermediate, junior, senior, and college students may be interested in this film.

Modern France: The Land and the People. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Educational Collaborator: Clyde F. Kohn, Associate Professor of Geography, Northwestern University.

France of today is vividly presented here—from the wheat fields of Normandy to the factories of Nancy. This film gives a human approach to this study of France. It is of interest to intermediate, junior high, senior high and adult groups.

Our Basic Civil Rights. One and one quarter reels. Sound. Color or black and white. Educational Collaborator: J. G. Kerwin, Professor of Political Science, University of Chicago.

Intermediate, junior and senior high school, and college students may be interested in this film. Basic concepts of civil rights are presented here and direction given toward a detailed study of those liberties which are fundamental to our society.

Young America Films, Inc.
18 East 41 Street
New York 17, N. Y.

FILMS

The following are 16 mm. films.

Bicycle Safety. One reel. Sound. \$40.00.

This film is aimed at bike riders themselves, especially those in the later elementary grades and junior high school. It points out that bicycling is fun, but it entails certain responsibilities on the part of the bicyclist.

Airplanes and How They Fly. One reel. Sound. \$40.00.

This film is aimed chiefly at the middle grade and junior high level. It gives an elementary explanation of how an airplane flies, and provides an exciting collection of scenes of all types of modern aircraft, from the light private plane to the heaviest bombers.

FILMSTRIPS

Products and Industries Series.

Set I: \$16.50 per set of 6

Each strip (40-45 frames) traces the industry from the source of its raw material through its processing and explains the many uses of

the product and its importance in daily life.

How We Get Our Leather

How We Get Our Wool

How We Get Our Rayon

How We Get Our Gas

How We Get Our Electricity

How We Get Our Cement

British Information Services

30 Rockefeller Plaza

New York 20, N. Y.

FILMSTRIPS

The Lake District. 43 frames—Captioned—with study guide. Sale \$1.00.

Located in the Northwest corner of England, the Lake District's reputation has been carried far and wide by the works of the Lake Poets, notably those of William Wordsworth.

Norfolk. 41 frames—Captioned—with study guides. Sale \$1.00.

This county, fourth largest in Britain, is the northern end of East Anglia—that part of England which juts out into the North Sea between the Thames and the Wash. The sea provides half the county's boundaries and has done much to influence its history.

Warwickshire. 36 frames—Captioned—with study guides. Sale \$1.00.

It is best known as the Shakespeare country—885 square miles, 50 miles from north to south and 33 miles in breadth. This region is also an agricultural county although it harbors the great industrial cities of Birmingham and Coventry.

A Century of Progress in Road Transport. 35 frames—Captioned—with study guide. Sale \$1.00.

In a hundred years, road transport has developed from horse-drawn buses, trams, hansom cabs, and carriers' carts, to an efficient network of public transport covering the whole country, and comprising buses, coaches, trolley buses and trams, besides large and small cars for private owners, and bicycles and motorcycles.

Artisan Productions

P.O. Box 1827

Hollywood 28, Cal.

FILMSTRIP

George Washington Carver—The Biography of an American. 72 frames. Sale \$6.00.

This filmstrip, vivid, educational and inspiring, portrays a moving tale of quiet herosim

and history-making achievement. The whole drama of turning the "useless," unwanted peanut into scores of nourishing, profitable products is one which will be appreciated by all students, from the elementary through high school years, and will be applauded by intercultural, community and church groups.

Office of Educational Activities
The New York Times
 New York 18, N. Y.

FILMSTRIP

America's Responsibilities—In A World Divided. 50 black and white frames. Sale individual strip \$2.00; price for series of eight monthly film strips, \$12.00.

This is the second in a series of strips presenting some of the problems involved in the world-wide struggle between totalitarian and democratic theories of society. It traces our country's rise to a position of world leadership. It shows the reasons why we remained so long in a state of virtual political isolation, and outlines the factors which at length compelled

us to take up the responsibilities which were inevitable corollaries of our economic power.

Meadows A. V. C. Service
 Mountain Lakes, N. J.

FILMSTRIPS

Life in Other Lands. \$27.50 per set of 10; each \$2.95.

Each strip depicts the life, customs, occupations and actual living of that country.

Mexico, China, Brazil, Russia, Hawaiian Islands, South America, Australia, Alaska, India, Canada.

Columbia Records, Inc.
 799 Seventh Avenue
 New York 19, N. Y.

RECORDINGS

I Can Hear It Now (vol. III) . . . One long playing 33 1/3 rpm record (ML-4340); album of five conventional shellac records (MM-963).

Reveals a panorama of voices, customs, behavior and politics in the twenties . . . Woodrow Wilson, Jimmy Walker, Will Rogers, the Scopes Trial, Sacco and Vanzetti case, Warren G. Harding, etc.

News and Comment

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN
 Philadelphia, Pa.

MUSEUMS—MODERN STYLE

The educational directors of museums have taken a leaf from the book of radio and motion picture producers to entertain their visitors and to present ideas attractively. They are employing new techniques in displaying exhibits so as to stimulate curiosity and to entertain while teaching.

In an article "First Visits to the Museum" in the *New York Sunday Times Magazine* of October 22, 1950, Dorothy Barclay tells about the brief lecture tours planned for parents and children at the Junior Museum of the Metropolitan Museum of Art of the City of New York. This junior museum section is arranged with exhibition cases uncrowded and low enough for the youngsters to see them easily.

In these tours, geared to the youngsters' interests, the children are allowed to touch some

of the objects which attract them. Thus, in a parent-child tour of the armor collection, there is a real helmet which the young people can try on.

The authorities of the Museum urge that the child receive advance preparation before visiting the exhibits. It is believed that a story or dramatization or a game about cowboys may raise questions in a little boy's mind and kindle his desire to know more about the West. Then when he visits the museum, he should go directly to the special exhibit on cowboys, leaving promptly as soon as he begins to be bored or weary.

Such arrangements for excursions into the early days of the American frontier or of colonial America or into medieval Europe or ancient Egypt are planned with the psychological principles of the school journey in mind,

namely motivating the small visitor, associating the museum in his mind with a delightful trip, and adapting the exhibits to his limitations of stature and his urge to touch and handle.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art has always been a fascinating place for some young people but, with the excellent methods described by Dorothy Barclay, the number of youngsters who enjoy spending an afternoon at the museum should increase.

Another new way to make museums interesting is to show how the tools and gear were used by everyday folks. An excellent account of examples of this method is given by William S. Powell in the Summer 1950 issue of a splendid and remarkable quarterly, *American Heritage*, published by the American Association for State and Local History. Dr. Powell points out that people want to know how a spinning wheel makes thread and see how a loom can weave cloth.

In a number of places in the United States, various occupations are shown in action. At the Farmers' Museum at Cooperstown, New York, for instance, a broom maker makes brooms and shingles, a blacksmith works at his anvil, a spinner spins, a weaver operates his loom, and a candle-maker demonstrates candle-making. The spectators are invited to help, should they wish to participate.

Another place using the demonstration technique is Colonial Williamsburg in Virginia, a town restored to show how people lived and worked in the eighteenth century. All the attendants and workers in the craft shop are dressed in authentic eighteenth century costume and are shown using eighteenth century tools. Some of the occupations demonstrated are blacksmithing, candle-making, and wig-making. The visitor can ride through the streets in a horse drawn carriage, historically correct for this setting. He may stop to see the stocks and the pillory just in front of the town gaol or refresh himself at the tavern which serves food prepared in accordance with eighteenth century recipes.

Another museum using the demonstration method is Old Sturbridge Village in Massachusetts, a re-created New England town of 1800. Still another is Spring Mill, a state park, near Mitchell, Indiana, where a pioneer village

has been restored and the milling of corn is demonstrated. In New Salem State Park in Illinois an early village has been restored, where a cooper's shop shows each step in the making of a barrel and where a team of oxen pulls a Conestoga wagon through the streets.

Among the historical museums preserving objects used in the twentieth century are the National Trolley Museum in Branford, Connecticut, where visitors may ride on trolley cars operated by the museum on a line two miles long, and the Patton Museum at Fort Knox, Kentucky, containing World War II material collected by the General. In the latter, visitors are invited to climb into jeeps and other vehicles, and to examine communication equipment, scrapbooks of clippings and files of photographs. Still another museum concerned with industrial processes is the Dairy Museum, a little-known museum located at 500 South 27th Street, in Philadelphia. Here visitors may inspect and operate the machinery. The collection includes, among other things, eighteenth century copper cans, primitive butter piggins from Switzerland and Finland as well as the United States, and old nursery items. The last include a sterling silver nipple, an eighteenth century milk warmer made in 1763 and hallmarked. Some of the exhibits in this Museum are sent to various places on loan. At the present time they have just been returned from Atlantic City, New Jersey, and are now being sent to the Royal Winter Fair in Canada.

FOLKLORE, HANDMAIDEN TO HISTORY

Folklore is another aid to understanding how people live. By interpreting the life of the common man it enlivens and gives zest to the story of the past. Professor Philip D. Jordan, of the Department of History of the University of Minnesota has presented this idea in an address, "History and Folklore," published in the *Missouri Historical Review*, January, 1950. He points out that history can be made more vital when it is supplemented by the folk tale, the proverb, the ballad, and folk arts and crafts. Folklore is a field which includes the study of folk observances, costumes, diet, notions, beliefs, traditions and superstitions.

Dr. Jordan says that the characteristics of folk literature are its simplicity, its motifs which spring uninhibited from stark human

emotions, and its concern with man as an individual. He states that it is best in its original form. He lists at least three broad categories of folk material. The first is the literary which includes folk verse, folk legends, folk myths, and folk tales. The second is the linguistic, which is concerned with pungent folk sayings and speech, and the third is the pseudo-scientific which includes weather lore, magic, witchcraft and other beliefs. Customs, dances, drama, festivals, games, and cookery are valuable in order to re-create the life of the common man for the ordinary student as well as for the social historian.

Dr. Jordan has also a series of sixty tape recordings entitled "Folklore Makes History" which are distributed to the schools of Minnesota.

Teachers desiring free bibliographies on the use of American Folklore in the schools should write to

Dr. Elizabeth Pilant, Executive Secretary,
National Conference, American Folklore for
Youth,
Ball State Teachers College,
Muncie, Indiana.

Among the materials sent on request are:
*Bibliography of American Folklore for Boys
and Girls* by Evelyn R. Sickels, Indianapolis

Public Library, *The Folklore Approach to Teaching, The Indiana Idea . . . Folklore for Children, Folklore in American Literature* by Dr. Ernest E. Leisy, and *Folk Elements in Mid-western Literature* by Dr. Levette J. Davidson, University of Denver.

NOTES

The annual meeting of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies will be held in Wilmington, Delaware, on December 8 and 9, 1950. The program will include a report on the new elementary school social studies program for Delaware, on Friday afternoon, a talk at the dinner on Friday evening by a prominent Asian on the importance of that area of the world, a Saturday morning meeting on developing inexpensive audio-visual programs, three simultaneous panels on India, Korea, and Japan, and a luncheon meeting on United States foreign policy in the Far East with a talk by a representative of the State Department. There will be a trip to Newcastle on Saturday afternoon. Persons wishing more detailed information should address

Dr. Leon S. Kenworthy,
Department of Education,
Brooklyn College,
Brooklyn 10, New York

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

Men Who Make Your World. By Members of the Overseas Press Club of America. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1949. Pp. xxiv, 319. \$3.50.

This book, in the words of the introduction, attempts "to paint a picture of this maladjusted world through the character and achievement of its leaders." The attempt is most successful. The profiles of leaders in world public affairs, written by twenty-five correspondents, thoroughly versed in their subject, are of uniform vividness and compactness. The choice of leaders was entrusted to a committee of the Press Club, and this committee frankly admits there will be disagreement as to their choice.

However, the fighting in Korea has emphasized the importance of the majority of the choices made, and the introduction explains within what limitations the committee operated.

Frequent use of anecdotes enlivens the book throughout. Although critical, the one about Churchill's breakfast of cold grouse and white wine on a recent Atlantic trip, and the apocryphal tale of Admiral Nimitz and General MacArthur as sole survivors of a great shipwreck are most amusing. These stories are balanced, however, by evidences of careful scholarship which should make these profiles of considerable historical value.

The teacher of the Social Studies, particularly of Contemporary Affairs, will find this book worthwhile as background material. The essays could be read with enjoyment by senior students in High School.

WILFRED T. GRENFELL

St. James School
St. James, Maryland

Families Under Stress. By Reuben Hill, with chapters in collaboration with Elise Boulding; assisted by Lowell Dunigan and Rachel Ann Elder. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949. Pp. x, 434. \$4.50.

This is an interesting and valuable report of a research project probing the reactions of families who experienced the twin crises of separation and reunion during the recent war. A sample of 135 Iowa families from which pre-Pearl Harbors fathers had been inducted into service were interviewed and also filled out questionnaires. Most of the data were obtained from the wife. The basic purpose of the project was to find out what factors in the social background, personal characteristics, family relationships, or objective hardship situation were associated with various degrees of "good" and "poor" adjustment to the war-induced separation from the husband and the later reunion.

Many of the hypotheses tested are taken from previously reported studies of families which have undergone crisis situations. Indeed, the authors show considerable skill in integrating the findings of other family researchers with their own inquiry. Some of these earlier findings are confirmed in the new context; others are not. This is definitely a study which adds to the literature, rather than competing with it.

The researchers found that among the most salient factors associated respectively with types of adjustment to separation and reunion are family integration and family adaptability (rated on scales developed by Cavan), marital adjustment (Burgess-Cottrell scale), and degree of hardship encountered. The relationships are in the expected direction, but interestingly enough, several of them are curvilinear rather than straight line. For instance, families with high adaptability scores but only medium scores in integration and marital adjustment did better in crisis adjustment than

those with highest scores on the latter two items. An important negative finding is that childhood and courtship experiences show little relation to either separation or reunion adjustment. It is carefully pointed out that even multiple correlation of significant factors with success in the respective crisis adjustments still leaves considerably over half of the variation unexplained. The authors modestly admit that "much [remains] to be done" in fully understanding the behavior of families in separation and reunion adjustment. In one of the technically most valuable portions of the analysis, deviant cases from the correlations are presented, and hypotheses which might explain the deviation are injected from a close reading of the particular case.

In one important respect this reviewer disagrees with the authors' interpretation of the distinction between statistical and case study analysis. When generalizations are presented based on quantitative relationships among variables (as they are in the "case study" portion of the report), the statistical method is being used, even though the variables are rated by the "case study" analyst.

This volume is technically sophisticated in method, but stylistically clear, although the reviewer confesses to a distaste for the use of contractions in non-idiosyncratic prose. Also, on page 222, "hypothesize" is incorrectly used for "hypothesize."

The findings of this well-conceived research may confidently be expected to find their way with dispatch into the textbooks on The Family, and possibly those on Introductory Sociology.

MILTON M. GORDON

Department of Sociology
Drew University,
Madison, New Jersey

Europe Since 1914 in Its World Setting. By F. Lee Bennis. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1949. Seventh Edition. Pp. xx, 770. \$3.50.

This is the most recent edition of a textbook justly celebrated as one of the leaders in its field. It should prove helpful to the many young Americans who are deeply interested in current events and who wish to know something of the more recent background of contemporary developments. This book has many impressive

features. Among the most outstanding is its account of the shift in the center of power among the states of the world which has taken place since 1914. This is reflected in the selection and organization of content material, and in the steadily increased emphasis upon non-European states such as the Soviet Union, the United States, China, India and Japan which the reader notes as he studies these pages. This does not mean that the author regards Europe as finished politically. Rather it is indicative of his realism in evaluating the recent political scene in global instead of national terms.

This edition contains a number of changes and additions over the sixth edition. The chapters on the Second World War have been rewritten in light of official and unofficial documents which have been published since the conclusion of hostilities. Then, in addition, five chapters have been prepared on the complex happenings in the world which have occurred since 1945. These quite naturally recount the growing tension between the United States and the Soviet Union, but they note, too, the efforts at worldwide reconstruction and the progress toward the peaceful settlement of international disputes made by the United Nations. Helpful bibliographies for these new chapters have been prepared, and revisions have been made in bibliographies of earlier chapters indicating newly published material relating to those periods. The gallery of photographic illustrations and the number of maps and charts have been enlarged in similar fashion.

Although this is primarily a political history, the author does not neglect the importance of economic factors in the conditioning of political developments. This was indicated in such chapters of the earlier editions of this work as those which discussed the relationship of war debts, reparations and world economic depression to the failure of efforts at disarmament and the rise of dictatorships throughout Europe. In the new chapters this is evidenced in the attention given the European Recovery Program both as an economic and political measure and to such efforts at economic and political integration as the Benelux organization. Fortunately for the student, this book does not sacrifice either historical element to the other, but utilizes both to present a balanced account of recent history.

Many chapters of this book provide an integrated discussion of underlying trends common to all national states. The author recognizes that political boundaries between nations cannot arrest the operation of certain forces in the modern world. Yet, on the other hand, reality in the form of existing national states is not disregarded. Consequently further material is presented which illuminates the operation of these forces in particular countries. The attainment of these two disparate but not necessarily contradictory objectives is well-illustrated in the discussion of trends in the Far East since 1945. The movement seeking the expulsion of the Europeans led by a group of articulate Asian leaders is explained in its general aspects. Then it is further analyzed as it has developed in such particular states as China, India, Pakistan and Indonesia.

Though the author considers his book to be but an introduction to the material which he discusses, the general reader will find it complete and well-organized. The style employed is one which blends verve and clarity nicely to the advantage of the reader. Undoubtedly this edition will continue to attract the wide audience which all previous editions of this work have deservedly enjoyed.

MAHLON H. HELLERUH

Elizabethtown College
Elizabethtown, Pennsylvania

The Advanced Atlas of Modern Geography. By John Bartholomew. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., 1950. Pp. 155. Trade edition \$8.50, text edition \$6.00.

Here is a completely revised atlas that is very comprehensive and includes maps not in the former edition or revised so completely that they are much more usable than before. There is less stress on political and more physical-political and specialized distributional maps. Spelling conforms to each local official form.

The atlas is bound in a sturdy cover, has one hundred eight pages of content and forty-seven pages of general index material; the latter lists the geographic item with the new "Bartholomew's Hour System of Geographic Co-ordinates" plus listing the page on which the map is located—a major improvement over the former Bartholomew work.

The atlas devotes one page to an explanation of the new system of geographic co-ordinates, mentioned above, based on hours east to west from the 180 degree meridian and latitude indicated by plus or Northing and minus or Southing units that have a value of ten times the standard latitude; two pages of geographical terms; one page of climatic statistical tables for fifty-one stations classified into fourteen climatic types; one page of population and area data for major political subdivisions; two pages of maps showing world exploration; three pages dealing with map projections; and the many maps showing continental, regional, economic, political, crops (major cereals, condiments, fibres, and timber), drainage, temperature, structural, geological, routes of commerce, natural vegetation, soils, religions, languages of commerce, agricultural regions, and many other physical and cultural patterns.

Many items stand out as different in this atlas. The colorings from lowland greens to mountain browns are lighter in tone than previously. At first they seem off-color but after closer inspection the compiler's objective is understood; the lighter the color the easier the black printing can be read. Land areas below sea-level are indicated by strawberry pink. some continental shelves are indicated by true (bright) yellow which, to the reviewer, does not accomplish the desired objective. Many of the maps avoid colored oceans—thus a clearer map is obtained, uncluttered by superfluous color. The continental vegetation maps represent the distribution in much greater detail; the former African vegetation map had five classifications, the new vegetation map has seventeen, plus salt and fresh water swamps.

Nearly every map has the name of the projection type, the standard geographic grid and the "Bartholomew's Hour System of Geographic Co-ordinates." The author presents several novel equal area maps to portray the world without interruption; they are called "Atlantis," "Nordic," and Regional Projections. Throughout the text, the continental sectional maps are more carefully cut to conform to the standard regional-political use. More sectional maps are used to cover North America, but the continent needs still more sectional maps to cover it to the same degree

of completeness that the other major continents are mapped.

Every map user who is interested in physical or cultural distribution, as covered in this atlas, will be pleased to secure this up-to-date volume. The McGraw-Hill Book Company is to be congratulated for making arrangement with the British publisher, Meiklejohn and Son, for distribution of this volume in the United States.

LEROY O. MYERS

West Virginia University
Morgantown, W. Va.

Global Mission. By H. H. Arnold. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1949. Pp. xxxii, 626. \$3.75.

This book is a most illuminating narrative account of the development of the airplane from the very beginning with the Wright brothers through the B-29. "Hap" Arnold, a graduate of West Point, who wanted to become a cavalry officer but instead did a stunt at the infantry station in the Philippines, was assigned as one of the first officers to aeronautical duty.

The story of Arnold's training and early experience is interesting chiefly because it reveals the preparation of flyers in those early days of aviation. During World War I, from his desk position in Washington, as second-ranking officer in the War Department's Air Division, he had an excellent vantage point to observe the domestic war time scene. Aircraft production was "the greatest American air headache." Our air force was merely an auxiliary of the army, protecting it defensively and aiding it.

The day after the Munich Agreement, Arnold was appointed Chief of the Air Corps. Then began the great effort to build up a strong air force in all its ramifications. Lindbergh's valuable service in an advisory capacity is duly credited. The problem of Western Hemisphere defense is discussed, with the action taken to secure it. Plans were laid in 1940-1941 for getting planes to our future allies. Bill Knudsen was a genius in his position of production manager, handling a thousand details with the greatest skill and success.

From our entry into World War II, Arnold, the Commanding General of the Army Air Force, participated in practically all the meetings of the head military leaders and was with them when they conferred with the heads of

our government and of our allied governments. The various "operations" were planned and coordinated. Arnold made trips to Europe, Africa and Asia to learn about needs and advise with the leaders of war and government. Daylight precision bombing was opposed by the British airmen until they saw how very successful it turned out to be. Arnold believed in bombing Germany out of the war, without any side shows to detract from the full weight of our bombers. The arrogance and secretiveness of the Russians in their dealings with their allies are noted repeatedly.

After the surrender of Germany came the redeployment of our bombers to the Pacific plus the use of the new B-29. Toward the close of the war, Arnold's "ticker" began to play out. He had to rest in the hospital awhile, and then return to a reduced schedule. On March 1, 1946, his request to retire was granted.

Certainly no one was more in the "know" about the development of our military air power and its use in World Wars I and II than Arnold. His account of it in *Global Mission* is most readable and instructive.

NORMAN C. BRILLHART

Reading High School
Reading, Pennsylvania

America: Its History and People. By Harold Underwood Faulkner and Tyler Kepner. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950. Pp. xvi, 953. \$2.10.

The preface of this book is most misleading since it begins with the statement, "This is the fourth edition . . ." and goes on to tell of extensive changes. After the signatures of the authors two sentences are added telling of "this fifth edition!" Made only three years after the fourth, it has few changes.

Former editions have been valuable supplementary material for secondary teachers and librarians ever since the first edition came off the press, and yearly more high schools have adopted the book for a regular text.

With the content of *America Its History and Its People* one can have no quarrel. There is a wealth of material carefully and truthfully interpreted. Terms frequently misunderstood by students are not taken for granted. For instance, a clearer explanation of an indentured servant and of quitrents is given than in most history

texts. Chapter 8, called "The New American Government," has the most adequate yet concise description of the Constitution that this reviewer has seen. Many footnotes for this chapter give additional information, especially on recent changes. The allotment of space to a given unit is judicious. More than 100 pages of bibliography and aids both to teacher and students are surely sufficient.

The format of this new edition may not impress one so favorably. The type is not easy on the eye; not one of the maps or illustrations is colored; and the graphs and pictures which are used inspire little interest or emotion. The members of the Armed Forces Institute which adopted this text might not have found it heavy, but the average sixteen year old boy or girl will hardly enjoy carrying it home or find a quickened interest in its perusal during a study period.

The plan of the text is the unit style at its best—or worst depending on whether one approves of this style of the last twenty years or whether he still likes history written to show a "life-like situation"—the way it happened, with all the distracting, seemingly irrelevant episodes competing for one's attention just as the reality bothered and compelled the attention of the founding fathers and their burdened sons. But even one who has implicit belief in the correctness of the chronological approach for the first study of our history will give full agreement for the use of the unit approach for a second and deeper study. For that this volume will be invaluable.

LILY LEE NIXON

Peabody High School
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

Introduction to Business Cycles. By Asher Achinstein. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1949. Pp. xxx, 496. \$4.00.

Introduction to Business Cycles is one of the most complete books that has been written on this subject and can be considered scholarly in all respects and a masterpiece in research work.

The book is divided into three parts for the purpose of presenting a complete picture of the subject. Part I takes up the various Business Cycle Theories that have been developed over the period of time as causes for the various periods of the cycle. Part II is called the Empiri-

cal Aspects of Business Cycles. In this division the problem of identifying cycles is discussed at great length. Part III is devoted to the Secular Trends and Cyclical Fluctuations. Here are also found the contributions of those theorists who were largely neglected in Part I because their views on business cycles are bound up with their views of economic development.

Economists, college teachers of economics and teachers of the secondary level will always find this book of great value for reference purposes.

DAVID W. HARR

Abraham Lincoln High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Francis the Good, The Education of an Emperor, 1768-1792. By Walter Consuelo Langsam. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949. Pp. x, 205. \$3.50.

Francis was the last Holy Roman Emperor. Lest this itself be confusing, it may be said that, before Bismarck, there were Germanies but no Germany. Thus, the "Holy Roman Empire" was a medieval method of rationalizing the fact of the unity in diversity which, because of blood and tradition, obtained in central Europe. Austria, for the greater period, held the nominal overlordship of the congeries of principalities and states which constituted this "First Reich." It was to Napoleon's credit or censure that, by the Treaty of Pressburg in 1806, he overthrew this thousand-year-old fiction.

Walter Consuelo Langsam, President of Wagner College, is a student of the Napoleonic Wars and German nationalism. His *The World Since 1914* is a leading college text, now in its sixth edition. *Francis the Good* is the first volume in a trilogy to be devoted to the emperor, his life and times, and the presumed political rights and duties of emperorship. It is to be followed by a second volume dealing with the twenty-three years of warfare between Austria and the French revolutionists; and by a third to be devoted to the twenty year period from 1815-1835, consequent to the Bourbon Restoration, in which Professor Langsam hopes to interpret Francis', struggle to maintain his political rights and to abet the augmentation of his possessions, economic and social life.

It is the stated purpose of Volume One to explain how Francis "got that way." Moreover,

although the little emperor is customarily represented as stupid, narrow-minded, and harshly reactionary (indeed, most general leaders know his minister Metternich far better than him), Langsam labors to show that this picture was both inaccurate and inadequate. Francis was, the author admits, truly opposed to political change, "but he did much to encourage economic and social development." His education, imposed upon him by a father and an uncle (Joseph II), supposedly among the most forward-looking men of their day, which constituted a specific preparation for the life of an emperor, is the subject of this first book.

Francis the Good is divided into four parts or chapters, as they represent different stages in the monarch's life rather than merely divisions of a book. President Langsam's phraseology here is both happy and painful. Thus, Chapter I relates to "Florentine Days, 1768-1784," and concerns the events surrounding the birth of "A healthy, well-formed, Archduke"; Chapter II introduces the "Imperial Apprentice, 1784-1792"; Chapter III, "A World I Never Made"; and IV, "The Cares and Pleasures of Majesty," with its "Introduction to Mars—and Hymen" and "I am so young and have so little experience."

Francis's education seems to have taken the style of both Plato and Rousseau, if these two can be combined in one phrase. Thus, his father writes, "care is to be taken to see that the children jump, run, use both hands equally well, fear nothing, and refrain from crying when they fall or hurt themselves . . ." A careful indoctrination into the prerogatives and duties or aristocracy is likewise cautioned and a long line of tutors attempt to train the young and inexperienced mind (no easy task, it is admitted).

Thus Francis emerges as a careful and meticulous sovereign given to much worry over the careless state of his empire and the inefficiency of his subalterns. Moreover, in spite of the terrible penal code, he assigns mercy where thought desirable: "while he demanded strict obedience to law and expected the punishment to fit the crime, Francis was, nevertheless, of a forgiving nature and often intervened to soften penalties." For example: "Four days after he assumed office, when an official courtier had carelessly lost several despatches, the sov-

ereign disposed of this serious case in his own handwriting, dismissing [only] the negligent messenger." And, when on a later occasion, "information reached the Emperor that a priest, teaching in a boys' academy, was guilty of pederasty, Francis, while labeling this a vice, as infamous as it was pernicious, yet was enlightened and lenient enough merely to order the transfer of the offender to another post."

Yet what does *Francis the Good* prove? It is hard to see what has been accomplished by this slender volume other than an obvious satisfaction of President Langsam's scholarly inclinations. Indeed, Langsam's scholarship is never in doubt; a fifth of the book is given over to notes and citations.

If, on the other hand, the author intends to impress upon his readers the parallel between the ages of Napoleon and that of the "Three Dictators," 1924-(?), it represents a thoughtful and provocative study. It would seem, however, in this case, that Professor Langsam is urging the caution and restraint of Francis and his minister Metternich. Whether or not this is wise is a matter of conjecture.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Willamette University
Salem, Oregon

The Individual and His Religion. By Gordon W. Allport. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950. Pp. xi, 147. \$2.50.

Here is a psychological interpretation of the religious beliefs and practices of the individual, written by one trained in the science of psychology but vitally interested in the phenomenon of religion.

The author does not profess to be an "expert" in the field of religion. "I make no assumptions and no denials regarding the claims of revealed religion. Writing as a scientist I am not entitled to either." When this reviewer read the above sentence in the preface he was emotionally "set" to read the book with much anticipation. Here is a scientist who does not claim to have peculiar knowledge about religion because he is a scientist. He asks only "to be heard on the function of the religious sentiment in the personality of the individual."

In speaking of the "religious sentiment," this Harvard professor does not commit any of the several psychological errors of which many

philosophers of religion are guilty. For him the religious sentiment is an indistinguishable blend of emotion and reason, of feeling and meaning.

In one sense this volume is a specialized expansion of Professor Allport's earlier book *Personality: A Psychological Interpretation* (1937). In both volumes he contends that each individual has a right to work out his own philosophy of life. Therefore each individual will work out his own individual religious sentiment. "I have argued that desiring and valuing and the pursuit of meaning, conditioned by temperament and capacity, spin the threads that become woven into the subjective religious pattern, and that the infinite diversity of these threads guarantees that each weaver's design will be unique."

A brief but adequate description of the growth of the religious sentiment during the life of the individual appears in Chapters Two and Three. Much of the material is based upon the findings of objective studies which have been made for the several age groups. The conclusions concerning the religion of college students grow out of a study made of 414 Harvard undergraduates, over two-thirds of them veterans of World War II, and 86 Radcliffe undergraduates. The author concludes that "on the average the early and middle twenties are the least religious period of life."

The most original part of this work is found in the author's description of the religion of maturity. He lists six attributes of the mature religious sentiment: (1) well differentiated; (2) dynamic in character in spite of its derivative nature; (3) productive of consistent morality; (4) comprehensive; (5) integral, and (6) fundamentally heuristic (that is, held tentatively until it can be confirmed or until it helps us discover a more valid belief).

In the second half of the book the author discusses the psychological implications of conscience, of St. James's "single-mindedness," of the confessional, of religious doubt, of faith, and of prayer and ritual. The average reader will find much that is helpful in this section for he will discover that he is looking at himself as he reads. The book concludes with a sentence that summarizes the author's thesis: "A man's religion . . . is his ultimate attempt to enlarge and to complete his own personality by finding

the supreme context in which he rightly belongs."

Here is a book about religion which will be a "must" whenever the public school has sufficient courage to introduce an objective study of religion into the curriculum of secondary education. No high school teacher should attempt to discuss religion in the classroom until he has read this book or one with the same thesis.

CHARLES D. SPOTTS

Department of Religion
Franklin and Marshall College
Lancaster, Pennsylvania

Community Organization and Planning. By Arthur Hillman. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950. Pp. xviii, 378. \$4.00.

A Roosevelt College sociology professor presents a systematic study of the factors and processes involved in the organization and planning of the community. The author draws upon a broad experience in community committee work as a staff member of the Federal Security Agency and the Chicago Council of Social Agencies. A foreword written by Louis Wirth attests that this book represents the first comprehensive effort to treat jointly the two movements of community organization and planning "as in theory and practice they have already come to be inseparable."

Organization exists in many patterns and forms. Both organization and planning are processes. Neither process is ever completed. David Lilienthal is quoted as saying that planning in the Tennessee Valley is a process of "unified development." The nature of both processes varies with the size, economy, and other aspects of the community's composition.

The book is well documented and quotes freely from other sources. Following each chapter is a brief bibliography. There is an appendix listing films available in relation to community organization and planning. In general, the book should prove more useful to sociologists than to other social scientists.

JOSEPH M. RAY

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Chief Justice John Marshall and the Growth of the Republic. By David Loth. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1949. Pp. 395. \$3.00.

Here is an historical book, modern, fresh and up-to-date in every way. It portrays a period of historical development in our country vitalized by the personality of a frontier boy who fought in the Revolution, rallied a disintegrating party in Congress and later was Chief Justice during thirty-four years of exciting times. The book is filled with human interest incidents in the life of John Marshall. His loyalty to his family, his struggles against political odds and his continual fight for the principles of the Hamiltonian Party contribute to the personality of this great American leader.

This book is far more than a story of the courts and some of the famous cases that blazed the judicial landmarks of our Republic; it is a running record of the contributions of a great pioneer. Marshall was far more than a great judge. Dr. Loth has added another gem to his already worthy list of pen portraits of historical characters. Social scientists will find in this book a fresh, enlightened point of view, which makes it interesting reading to all.

T. EARL SULLENGER

Municipal University of Omaha
Omaha, Nebraska

Female Persuasion: Six Strong-Minded Women.

By Margaret Farrand Thorp. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1949. Pp. 253. \$3.75.

Strong minded women were these nineteenth-century ladies—Catharine E. Beecher, Jane G. Swisshelm, Amelia Bloomer, Louisa S. McCord, Sara J. Lippincott and L. Maria Child. They were courageous, too. When they wanted to work for any good cause, they found that the social mores demanded that woman keep silent and stay out of the professions. But these women with their high intellectual capacity and regard for the welfare of humanity stepped out of "woman's sphere" to work for a better world.

They were not "unwomanly." Even though they lectured or wrote for magazines or organized societies to crusade for reform, they were model housekeepers, keenly interested in balanced meals and in maintaining a happy home for their loved ones. Most of these women had husbands who shared their interest in reform. The husband sometimes presided at meetings, took his wife in partnership in editing a magazine, or gave her part of his earnings to finance welfare activities.

This book gives the histories of five women who had great influence on their time in the fight for abolition of slavery, temperance, education of girls, woman's rights, prison reform and dress reform. They were in the thick of the pre-Civil War controversies, helped to fight the war, and took an active part in settling the West. The sixth—Louisa S. McCord—spoke and wrote for the slave-owning planter, defending vigorously the institution of slavery.

Well-written and authentic, the book is recommended for secondary school and college use. It adds to an understanding of the history of the time and provides much-needed material on the influence of women on our nation's development.

IRA KREIDER

Abington High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

Out of the Past. By Howard E. Wilson, Florence H. Wilson, Bessie P. Erb and Elgie Clucas. New York: American Book Company, 1950. Pp. xxx, 470. \$2.48.

Out of the Past is an excellent text to use in junior high school social studies courses because it must be regarded as one of the finer texts that have been written in this field in recent years.

The text covers prehistoric times, the Middle Ages, the rise of nations of Europe, the Renaissance and the period of exploration.

The illustrations used in the book are eye-appealing to the pupils and create enthusiasm for a subject that is usually considered by pupils as dry. The language of the book is simple, direct and readable by pupils of this grade level.

Out of the Past cannot be regarded entirely as factual history. It emphasizes the progress of man in his slow steady climb toward civilization. One of the outstanding points of the book is that the culture of peoples and nations is stressed.

The teaching aids at the end of each chapter are varied and numerous and afford opportunities for differentiated instruction.

BETTY LOU HARR

Upper Dublin School District
Fort Washington, Pennsylvania

State and Local Government. By Claudius O. Johnson. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1950. Pp. 289. \$2.50.

This is a brief college textbook written to complement the author's *American National Government*. It is intended for use in courses that follow the national-state-local approach. In addition to presenting rich and clear subject matter, written in an easy and interesting style, the author has succeeded in giving the reader a sense of his stake in the common endeavor for good government. In the description of the machinery of state and local government, reports of commissions and conferences for improving the processes of local and state government are inserted and their recommendations are considered. Although it is a college text, the style and subject matter are such that make it useful as a supplementary text for senior high school American history or Problems classes.

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS GENERAL

The Gettysburg National Museum has installed an Electric Map measuring 18 x 23 feet which re-enacts through a series of electric lights the Battle of Gettysburg. This map presents such a clear and fascinating picture of the great American military drama that the average visitor feels that he is part of the cast.

Teachers interested in securing up-to-date material for the unit on Conservation in Problems of American Democracy classes would do well to write the Department of Forests at Albany, New York. The program adopted by this state represents a long step forward in forest conservation and may well serve as a model plan for other states.

PAMPHLETS

Department of State Publications, Washington 6, D. C.

The Future of Germany. By John J. McCloy. Number 3779.

Patterns of Cooperation. Number 3735.

Achievements of International organizations in the economic and social field.

Economic and Social Problems. Volume 2, Number 2, February, 1950. Copies free: Write to Department of State Publication. Department of Public Information, United Nations, Lake Success, New York.

The Palestine Refugee Program. Publication Number 3757, Office of Public Affairs, Washington 6, D. C.

Publications on Economics that may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

The United States Balance of Payments Problem. Commercial Policy Series 123, Publication Number 3695. 1949. Pp. 14. Price, 10 cents. The problem of attaining a balance of imports and exports, and the ways for the United States to solve it.

Wonder Book of Rubber. Prepared by B. F. Goodrich Company, Akron, Ohio. Excellent pamphlet for use in Elementary and Junior High School classes of Social Studies. Copies free upon application to the above address.

The Point Four Program. Foreign Affairs Outline Number 21. Economic Cooperation Series 11. Publication Number 3498. 1949. Pp. 6. Free. The philosophy and objectives of the program and its practical aspects, with a discussion of similar current programs.

General Manual. The American Adventure Series. Wheeler Publishing Company, Chicago, Illinois. Price 50 cents.

This series of books is edited by a noted teacher and highly respected authority on remedial reading. Social Studies teachers will profit greatly by reading this manual.

Culture and Personality. Edited by S. Stansfeld Sargent and Marian W. Smith. Price: \$1.50.

Proceedings of an Interdisciplinary Conference held under the auspices of the Viking Fund.

The Parliamentary System of Government. By Sir Ernest Barker. Free upon application to: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

Employment Outlook in Railroads. Bulletin Number 961. Price 30 cents. Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

A useful pamphlet for reference work.

New York State. Its History and Its Government. By Michael Glassman. Brooklyn, New York: Barron's Educational Series Inc., 1949. Pp. v, 126. 60 cents.

The basic material in this text complies with the state laws of New York for use in the study of the State's history.

ARTICLES

"Economics and History," by Shepard B. Clough *Social Education*, Volume XIV, Number 1, January, 1950.

"Work Guides Provide Clues to the Open Mind," by Joseph J. Goldstein. *Curriculum News and Views*, School District of Phila. Volume V, Number 3, December, 1949.

"Two Challenges for Teachers," by David H. Stewart. *Penna. School Journal*, January, 1950, Volume 98, Number 5.

"These Women Work For You," by Morton Sontheimer, *McCall's*, January, 1950. An interesting story of the work of the Women's Lobby in our nation's capital.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Ethics and Society. By Melvin Rader. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1950. Pp. xiii, 401. \$3.25.

A book that is written for the student and general reader.

The American System of Government. By John H. Ferguson and Dean E. McHenry. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1950. Pp. xlv, 1042. \$5.00. Second Edition.

A thorough comprehensive text on the American System of Government.

The Struggle for Palestine. By J. C. Hurwitz. New York: W. W. Norton Incorporated, 1950. Pp. xxiii, 403. \$6.00.

This book will be recognized as an authority for all who are interested in Palestine and the Near East.

A Sociological Approach to Education. By Lloyd Allen Cook and Elaine Forsythe Cook. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company Incorporated, 1950. Pp. xx, 514. \$4.50.

New second edition thoroughly revised.

Principles and Techniques of Guidance. By D. Welty LeFever, Archie M. Turrell and Henry I. Weitzel. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1950. Pp. xvii, 577. \$4.50. Revised Edition.

This volume will prove very valuable to classroom teachers and guidance counsellors.

Education for Life Adjustment. Its Meaning and Implementation. Edited by Harl R. Douglass. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1950. Pp. xxi, 491. \$4.50.

One of the few outstanding books on this subject.

Margaret Dreier Robbins. Her Life, Letters and Work. By Mary E. Dreier. New York: Island Press Cooperative, Incorporated, 1950. Pp. xxvii, 274. \$4.00.

A splendid contribution showing the development of women's rights in industry.

The Pennsylvania Story. By Robert Fortenbaugh and H. James Tarman. State College, Pennsylvania; Penns Valley Publishers, Incorporated, 1949. Pp. xxii. \$2.40. Charts, Illustrations, Maps.

A well organized book that should prove interesting and useful to both pupils and teachers.

Achieving Maturity. By Jane Warters. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1949. Pp. xv, 349. \$3.00.

This book covers the principal developmental experiences of adolescents.

State and Local Government. By Claudius O. Johnson. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1950. Pp. x, 289. \$2.50.

A book that teachers will find clear, direct and interesting.

Albert Einstein: Philosopher-Scientist. Edited by Paul Arthur Schilpp. Evanston, Illinois: The Library of Living Philosophers Incorporated, 1949. Pp. iv, 781. \$8.50. Volume VII. An exhaustive study of Einstein's writings and epoch making achievements.

The Confederate States of America 1861-1865. By E. Merton Coulter. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1950. Pp. xxii, 644. \$7.00.

A comprehensive study of the period of 1861-1865.

Our Sovereign State, By Robert S. Allen. New York: The Vanguard Press, Incorporated, 1949. Pp. xiii, 413. \$5.00.

An exposure of corrupt practices in some of our large city governments.

An Historical Geography of Europe. By W. Hordon East. London, England: Methuen and Company, Limited, 1948. Pp. xx, 480. \$4.20. Maps, Third Edition.

A basic study of continental Europe.

U. S. West. The Saga of Wells Fargo. By Lucius Beebe and Charles Clegg. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Incorporated, 1949. Pp. xiv, 320. \$7.50. Illustrations.

An indispensable reference book in American history.

Psychology. By T. L. Engle. New York: World Book Company, 1950. Pp. xvii. \$2.31.

Revised and improved to meet the needs of the present day.

Our Modern World. By Eugene VanCleaf. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1949. Pp. xviii. \$2.35.

Well organized factual material.

A History of our Country. By David Saville Muzzey. New York: Ginn and Company, 1950. Pp. xxxiv, 638. \$2.61. Chart, maps, illustrations.

Entirely different from past books written by the same author.

Searchlight on Peace Plans: Choose Your Road to World Government. By Edith Wynner and Georgia Lloyd. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1949. Pp. iv, 607. \$5.75.

A comprehensive survey of plans directed at world organization.

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